THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1809.

ART. I. *Letters from a late eminent Prelate to one of his Friends.* Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 516. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1809.

WARBURTON was certainly in his day a star of magnitude and lustre in the theological hemisphere; and whether he will or will not continue to illuminate the world from age to age, his *light* yet *shines before men* sufficiently to render him, his writings, and his friends, the objects of literary interest. It cannot be denied, then, that these letters from him to Bishop Hurd may be termed the correspondence of '*an Eminent Prelate*;' nor can it be doubted that they will excite a degree of attention which, after having perused them, we do not hesitate to say will be amply gratified. Indeed, persons who are acquainted with the literary history of *Warburton and a Warburtonian* will regard this collection of letters as a great curiosity; and the avidity of the public for these *beaux morceaux* has already been unequivocally indicated.

These Right Reverend correspondents, who may not improperly be termed the clerical *Pylades* and *Orestes*, figure throughout in all the glowing colours of the warmest friendship; and we presume that the surviving prelate, who directed the publication of the letters, derived no inconsiderable gratification from reflecting on the manner in which he should be held up to posterity by the great Warburton. While, however, we make all favourable allowances for what Milton * calls "the last infirmity of noble minds," we cannot refrain from expressing some surprize that the author of "the Address to Dr. Jortin on *the Delicacy of Friendship*," (see "Tracts by Warburton and a Warburtonian,") who reprobates "the gross indelicacy with

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* *A propos* of Milton: we may be allowed to advert in this place to an expression of Warburton respecting our great poet, which is a strong trait of character. Speaking of Lauder's 'silly and knavish book,' he adds; 'however, in one view it does not displease me: it is likely enough *to mortify all the silly adorers of Milton, who deserve to be laughed at.*' (P. 29.)

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which some persons usually conduct themselves in the expression of this virtue," and sneers at "the civil things which lettered friends are pleased to say of one another," should so far forget himself as to make a public exposure of all the flattery which is liberally bestowed on him by Dr. Warburton. It is true that the commerce of adulation is fairly carried on, and that Dr. Hurd is not tardy in returning praise for praise. Indeed the shuttle-cock is kept up with equal zeal and dexterity; and as the game is gratifying to their vanity, they contrive to retain it snug to themselves. They cherish the proud belief that the sense, learning, and virtue of the age are for the most part in their possession*; and that all who fancy themselves scholars have nothing to do with their writings but to admire them. Warburton finds none but *dunces* in the world (p. 373); and friend Hurd, not to be behind-hand in discovery, recognizes in this literary hemisphere only *coxcombs*. (p. 377.) They seem to say with the French academician,

"*Nul n'aura de l'esprit que nous et nos amis.*"

Poor Drs. Leland and Jortin, however high their reputation, pass for mere pigmies in literature in the estimation of this *par nobile*; and Hurd, in order to *curry favour* with his great friend, treats them in the most supercilious and sarcastic manner. As we proceed in the correspondence, we perceive in what way this devotion to his patron is repaid; and we follow the good fortune of Mr. Hurd under Warburtonian auspices, till, from one step of preferment to another, he arrives at episcopal honours. Yet in the midst of the littleness which, in one respect, is observable in this intercourse, we notice with pleasure the evidences of a long and uninterrupted friendship; we contemplate the proud Warburton in several amiable points of view; we see him at his ease; we are gratified by the brilliant flashes which proceed from his mind without effort, are amused by its sprightliness, and are convinced that his heart was endued with some excellent social qualities.—As to Hurd, also, it must not be omitted that the warmth of his gratitude, his devotion to letters, his exemplary affection towards his parents, and the unsullied moral virtues of a long life, are properties of character which will ensure the general esteem which they deserve.

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* At p. 463. Warburton thus writes to Hurd, 'If you should die, in the present state of things, *darkness* (as the Poet strongly expresses it) *will be the burier of the dead*: there will not be light enough left to see or apprehend our loss.'

Again, P. 114. 'What will not such a capacity and such a pen do, either to shame or to improve a miserable age!'

On

On a blank leaf in the first of five portfolios containing the originals of this collection, the editor made the following entry:

"These letters give so true a picture of the writer's character, and are, besides, so worthy of him in all respects (I mean, if the reader can forgive the playfulness of his wit in some instances, and the partiality of his friendship in many more), that, in honour of his memory, I would have them published after my death, and the profits arising from them applied to the benefit of the Worcester Infirmary.

"January 18th, 1793. R. WORCESTER."

The series commences with a letter from Mr. Warburton to Mr. Hurd, dated Bedford-Row, June 1, 1749, acknowleging the receipt of a copy of Horace's Epistle to the Pisos, which the latter had published with a critical commentary; and it finishes with a letter written by Dr. W., Bishop of Gloucester, June 8. 1776, addressed to Dr. H. then Bishop of Litchfield and Coventry, to be opened and delivered to him after the decease of the writer: in which he solemnly commends Mrs. Warburton to Dr. Hurd's protection, and 'conjures him to afford her his assistance, and to aid her against all persons who may be disposed to injure or *bear hard* * upon her.'

It appears, then, that this correspondence occupied the space of 27 years. Three years after the date of the last-mentioned letter, Dr. Warburton died, i. e. June 17, 1779; (see the account of his life by the Bishop of Worcester, M. R. Vol. 16. N. S. p. 322;) and in 1788 a splendid edition of his works in seven quarto volumes (see M. R. Vol. 81. p. 352.) was given to the world by his surviving friend: though, for reasons not explained, the Memoir which was intended to serve as an introduction, and to contain an account of the life, writings, and character of the author, was then withholden, and was not published till 1794. We look in vain for the developement of the mystery which hangs over this affair, in the letters now presented to the curious eye: but, if we find nothing to gratify that keen appetite for scandal which prevails both in the great and the little world, we are furnished with various traits which together form 'a true picture of the writer's mind,' and place his character in a fairer light than that in which he has been generally contemplated. From the strange paradoxes which he maintained, and from the profusion of learning with which he laboured to defend them against the opinion of scholars, some persons have been induced to regard Dr. Warburton as more intent on the display of gigantic abili-

* The meaning of this expression it is not for us to investigate.

ties than as seriously in earnest: but in these letters he uniformly appears as a true believer. In letter 24, dated Prior Park, July 11, 1750, speaking of Dr. Middleton, he says:

'Had he had, I will not say, piety, but greatness of mind enough not to suffer the pretended injuries of some Churchmen to prejudice him against Religion, I should love him living, and honour his memory when dead. But, good God! that man, for the discourtesies done him by his miserable fellow-creatures, should be content to divest himself of the true viaticum, the comfort, the solace, the asylum from all the evils of human life, is perfectly astonishing! I believe no one (all things considered) has suffered more from the low and vile passions of the high and low amongst our brethren than myself. Yet God forbid it should ever suffer me to be cold in the Gospel interests, which are indeed so much my own, that without it I should be disposed to consider humanity as the most forlorn part of the creation.'

At another time, (Letter 47.) he can be playful, and make a ludicrous representation of Noah's Ark:

'Poor Forster (whom I have just received a letter from) is overwhelmed with desolation for the loss of his master. I quoted his case to our friend Balguy for his consolation. But you say—*I will have no master*—which, I confess, is the best consolation of all. – Reckon upon it, that Durham goes to some Noble Ecclesiastic. 'Tis a morsel only for them. Our *Grandees* have at last found their way back into the Church. I only wonder they have been so long about it. But be assured that nothing but a new religious revolution, to sweep away the fragments that Henry the VIIIth left, after banqueting his courtiers, will drive them out again. The Church has been of old the cradle and the throne of the younger Nobility. And this nursing mother will, I hope, once more vie with old imperious Berecynthia—

Læta Deûm partu, centum complexa Nepotes,
Omnes Cœlicolas, omnes *supera alta* tenentes.

'You mention Noah's Ark. I have really forgot what I said of it. But I suppose I compared the Church to it, as many a grave Divine has done before me.—The Rabbins make the giant Gog or Magog contemporary with Noah, and convinced by his preaching. So that he was disposed to take the benefit of the Ark. But here lay the distress; it by no means suited his dimensions. Therefore, as he could not enter in, he contented himself to ride upon it astride. And though you must suppose that, in that stormy weather, he was more than half-boots over, he kept his seat, and dismounted safely, when the Ark landed on Mount Ararat. Image now to yourself this illustrious Cavalier mounted on his *hackney*; and see if it does not bring before you the church, bestrid by some lumpish minister of state, who turns and winds it at his pleasure. The only difference is, that Gog believed the preacher of righteousness and religion.

I am, &c.'

Again:

Again:

'*Grosvenor Square, November 29th*, 1760.

'Here I am, in a world of nonsense and hurry, and hurry and nonsense; for one can hardly tell which is the parent, which the offspring; or whether they do not beget one another.'

It would seem, from some passages in these letters, that the sworn clerical brothers were the humblest of beings: but we can always see pride lurking beneath the mask of humility; Warburton, writing from Prior Park, September 24. 1754, says,

'Those who have the noble ambition to make their *regular stages*, must dash through thick and thin; must be soundly bespattered; and, what to an ingenuous mind is as grievous, must as heartily bespatter. But they deserve no pity. What is hard, is, that such travellers as ve[illegible] who pick our way, and wo[illegible] our ease.'

In the Rev^w for September

P. 5. l. 3. for 'and hurry and nonsense', r. or of hurry, & nonsense.

13. l. 11. for both take the comma from 'Scotland', & place it after 'Edburgh'.

41. l. 26. take the comma away from 'fault.'

60. l. 10. for both. insert a comma after 'nations'.

71. l. 8. put a double turned comma after 'Army'.

95. l. 17. insert a comma after 'us.'

101. l. 28. insert a double turned comma after 'Manes'

104. l. 17. for both for 'The'; r. These.

l. penult, put a full point after 'D^r. W'

'You will say, remember the *sovereignty of Reason*. To this I reply, that the common definition of man is false: he is not a *reasoning animal*. The best you can predicate of him is, that he is an *animal capable of reason*, and this too we take upon old tradition. For it has not been my fortune yet to meet, I won't say with any one man, but I may safely swear with any one order of men, who ever

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Speaking of the writers who combated the *Divine Legation*, he superciliously observes:

'I wanted to see if any of them had hit upon the weak parts, I had been with so much pains providing for. And I can assure you, that not one of them has been yet found out by my enemies; and do yet remain a secret between God, my conscience, and my friends.

'I can safely say, I will shew them two hundred in mine for every single fault my enemies are ever likely to find out.'

In reply to this *bounce*, it may be remarked that if the D.L. were so full of weak parts, it was the author's duty, as a lover of truth, to expose them himself; and not to be so very angry with every person who presumed to draw a quill against him. Elsewhere, we find that nobody *reasons*, except Dr. W.

'You will say, remember the *sovereignty of Reason*. To this I reply, that the common definition of man is false: he is not a *reasoning animal*. The best you can predicate of him is, that he is an *animal capable of reason*, and this too we take upon old tradition. For it has not been my fortune yet to meet, I won't say with any one man, but I may safely swear with any one order of men, who ever

did reason. And this I am afraid our friend Towne will soon find to his cost.'

In the few letters of Hurd to Warburton which are inserted in this collection, we perceive the traces of those estimable qualities which so endeared him to his friend. The following account of his family* is a specimen of manly ingenuousness and true affection, which all readers must admire :

'I believe I never told you how happy I am in an excellent father and mother, very plain people you may be sure, for they are farmers, but of a turn of mind that might have honoured any rank and any education. With very tolerable, but in no degree affluent circumstances, their generosity was such, they never regarded any expence that was in their power, and almost out of it, in whatever concerned the welfare of their children. We are three brothers of us. The eldest settled very reputably in their own way, and the youngest in the Birmingham trade. For myself, a *poor scholar*, as you know, I am almost ashamed to own to you how solicitous they always were to furnish me with all the opportunities of the best and most liberal education. My case in so many particulars resembles that which the Roman poet describes as his own, that with Pope's wit I could apply almost every circumstance of it. And if ever I were to wish in earnest to be a poet, it would be for the sake of doing justice to so uncommon a virtue. I should be a wretch if I did not conclude, as he does,

——si Natura juberet
A certis annis ævum remeare peractum,
Atque alios legere ad fastum quoscunque parentes,
Optaret sibi quisque : meis contentus, onustos
Fascibus et sellis nolim mihi sumere : demens
Judicio vulgi, sanus fortasse tuo.——

'In a word, when they had fixed us in such a rank of life as they designed, and believed should satisfy us, they very wisely left the business of the world to such as wanted it more, or liked it better. They considered what age and declining health seemed to demand of them, reserving to themselves only such a support as their few and little wants made them think sufficient. I should beg pardon for troubling you with this humble history : but the subjects of it are so much and so tenderly in my thoughts at present, that if I writ at all, I could hardly help writing about them.'

* Dr. W. also adverts to the circumstances of his family, in a subsequent letter, in which the goodness of his heart is manifest :

'I had the pleasure of finding you well at Cambridge ; I had the pleasure of finding a Sister and a Niece well at Broughton ; with whom I spent a few days with much satisfaction : for you must know I have a numerous family, perhaps the more endeared to me by their sole dependance on me. It pleased Providence that two of my Sisters should marry unhappily, and that a third, on the point of venturing, should escape the hazard, and so engage my care only for herself.'

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As to the connection which took place between the two divines, Mr. Hurd gives this flattering narrative ;

'To say the truth, there had been so much apparent bigotry and insolence in the invectives I had heard, though echoed, as was said, from men of note amongst us, that I wished, perhaps out of pure spite, to find them ill-founded. And I doubt I was half determined in your favour before I knew any thing of the merits of the case.

'The effect of all this was, that I took the Divine Legation down with me into the country, where I was going to spend the summer of, I think, 1741, with my friends. I there read the three volumes at my leisure, and with the impression I shall never forget. I returned to College the winter following, not so properly your convert, as all over spleen and prejudice against your defamers. From that time, I think, I am to date my friendship with you. There was something in your mind, still more than in the matter of your book, that struck me. In a word, I grew a constant reader of you. I enquired after your other works. I got the Alliance into my hands, and met with the Essay on *Portents and Prodigies*, which last I liked the better, and still like it, because I understood it was most abused by those who owed you no good-will. Things were in this train when the Comment on Pope appeared. That Comment, and the connection I chanced then to have with Sir Edward Littleton, made me a poor critic : and in that condition you found me. I became, on the sudden, your acquaintance ; and am now happy in being your friend.—You have here a slight sketch of my history ; at least, of the only part of it which will ever deserve notice.'

Yet, though here as well as in numerous other letters, he is profuse in his adulation of his partial friend, he ventures to add ; 'I am as much above the thought of flattering you, as you are above the want of it.'—This, indeed, may be true.

In a letter to the Bishop of Gloucester, dated 25 December 1761, Mr. Hurd thus incidentally states his opinion of the poems attributed to Ossian :

'I have by accident got a sight of this mighty *Fingal*. I believe I mentioned my suspicions of the *Fragments :* they are ten-fold greater of this epic poem. To say nothing of the want of *external evidence*, or, which looks still worse, his shuffling over in such a manner the little evidence he pretends to give us, every page appears to me to afford *internal* evidence of forgery. His very citations of parallel passages *bear* against him. In poems of such rude antiquity, there might be some flashes of genius. But here they are continual, and cloathed in very classical expression. Besides, no images, no sentiments, but what are matched in other writers, or may be accounted for from usages still subsisting, or well known from the story of other nations. In short, nothing but what the enlightened editor can well explain himself. Above all, what are we to think of a long epic poem, disposed, in form, into six books, with a *beginning*, *middle*, and *end*, and enlivened, in the classic taste, with episodes. Still this is nothing. What are we to think of a work of this length, preserved and handed

down to us entire, by *oral tradition*, for 1400 years, without a chasm, or so much as a various reading, I should rather say, *speaking?* Put all this together, and if Fingal be not a forgery, convict; all I have to say is, that the Sophists have a fine time of it. They may write, and lie on, with perfect security. And yet has this prodigy of North Britain set the world agape. Mr. Gray believes in it; and without doubt this Scotsman may persuade us, by the same arts, that Fingal is an original poem, as another employed to prove that Milton was a plagiary. But let *James Macpherson* beware the consequence. *Truth will out*, they say, and then—

"Qui Bavium non odit, amet *tua carmina*, Mævi."

From a letter of Dr. W, dated in 1775, it appears that Mr. Hurd had an intention of writing a Dialogue on the effect of *transferring supremacy in religious matters.* The design was not fulfilled, but it occasioned some remarkable observations from Warburton:

'A thousand curious hints will arise to you as you proceed in contemplation of the subject. One now, for instance, occurs to me. Could any thing be more absurd than that, when the yoke of Rome was thrown off, they should govern the new Church, erected in opposition to it, by the laws of the old. The pretence was, that this was only by way of *interim*, till a body of Ecclesiastical Laws could be formed. But whoever considers that the *Canon Laws* proceeded from, and had perpetual reference to, an *absolute spiritual Monarch*, and were formed upon the genius, and did acknowlege the authority of the *Civil Laws*, the issue of *civil despotism*—I say, whoever considers this, will be inclined to think that the Crown contrived this *interim* from the use the Canon Law was of to the extension of the Prerogative. However, it is certain that the succeeding Monarchs, Elizabeth, James, Charles, prevented our ever having a body of new Ecclesiastical Laws, from a sense of this utility in the old ones; and a consciousness, if ever they should submit a body of new Laws to the Legislature, the Parliament would form them altogether upon the genius of a free Church and State. This I take to be the true solution of this mysterious affair, that wears a face of so much absurdity and scandalous neglect.'

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Some idea may be formed of the temper of Warburton's mind as a controversialist, from the representation which he gives of himself at the time of replying to several writers who had attacked the *Divine Legation*:

'The contents of the inclosed paper is for a note at p 484 of the second volume of the Divine Legation, where I enter upon the book of Job. I occasionally take notice of some of my answerers as I go along, in the notes, chiefly Gray and Peters. As for Worthington, Lowth, Garnet, Chappelow, &c. I am entirely silent on their chapters. The paper I send you is the introductory note to those mentioned above. I need not explain it to you. You will understand every word. What I want to know is, whether some parts of it be

not too severe. Whatever there is of this kind I shall gladly strike out: for though I have had provocation enough, I can assure you, I have no resentment. I perhaps may not be thought the best judge of my own temper in this matter, and reasonably. But why I say I have so little resentment I collect from hence, that there is not one word in this volume against them, which I could not with the greatest indifference strike out, either with reason or without. I do not expect the world should do me this justice, because they are to judge by appearances, and appearances are against me, for there are caustic strokes enough against the ignorance and ill faith of my adversaries. But if this be resentment, it is the resentment I should shew against vice and folly in the case of any other honest man.'

As a farther specimen of his epistolary style, and of the ease with which he delivered his opinions to his confidential friend, on every subject that occurred, we shall copy entire the 187th Letter:

'Prior-Park, November 15th, 1766.

'I have your kind letter of the 11th.

'As to *Rousseau*, I entirely agree with you, that his long letter to his brother philosopher, Hume, shews him to be a frank lunatick. His passion of tears—his suspicion of his friends in the midst of their services—and his incapacity of being set right, all consign him to Monro. You give the true cause too, of this excess of frenzy, which breaks out on all occasions, the honest neglect of our countrymen in their tribute to his importance. For all that Hume says of him on this head, seems to be the truth; and as it is a truth easily discoverable from his writings, his patron could have but one motive in bringing him over (for he was under the protection of Lord Mareshal), and that was cherishing a man whose writings were as mischievous to society as his own.

'Walpole's pleasantry upon him had *baseness* in its very conception. It was written when the poor man had determined to seek an asylum in England; and is therefore justly and generously condemned by D'Alembert. This considered, Hume failed both in honour and friendship, not to shew his dislike: which neglect seems to have kindled the first spark of combustion in this madman's brain. The merits of the two philosophers are soon adjusted. There is an immense distance between their natural genius; none at all in their excessive vanity; and much again in their good faith. Rousseau's warmth has made him act the madman in his philosophic enquiries, so that he oft saw not the mischief which he did: Hume's coldness made him not only see, but rejoice in his. But it is neither parts nor logic that has made either of them *philosophers*, but infidelity only: for which, to be sure, they equally deserve a Pension.—Had the givers considered the difference between what became them to do in *charity*, by way of *protection*, and what became them to do as a *reward*, by way of *pension*, they never had been reduced to the low and ignoble expedient of having what they did kept a *secret*. However, the *contestation* is very amusing; and I shall be very sorry if it stops now it is in so good a train. I should be well

pleased,

pleased, particularly, to see so seraphic a madman attack so insufferable a coxcomb as Walpole; and I think they are only fit for one another.

'I could not but laugh at your archness, in what you say about *Antichrist.* You may think, perhaps, and not amiss, that a Discourse on the *great whore*, like that on the little one in Terence, can be, at best, but teaching the spiritual inamorato, *cum ratione insanire*; but this may be something; and not so useless as Parmeno thought it;—for the *madness*, consult the prophet, Whiston; and for the *reason*, the interpreter, Mede.

'The *Dormitory* is already filled; but what inspirations, as a *library*, it may give to the forty little sleepers therein, must be left to time, which reveals all things.

'As to news, when you send me any, I had rather you would consider yourself as my *Purveyor*, than my *Intelligencer*. It is a kind of daily-bread one can hardly do without; eaten to day with appetite, and gone, one does not care where, to-morrow. I am a great reader of History; but a greater still of professed Romances: so that you see nothing comes amiss to a man who consults his appetite more than his digestion.

'I suppose you have got our friends, Mr. and Mrs. Mason, to town. I wish she may receive all the benefit they propose and hope.'

We must finish our extracts with the accounts which the Bishop of Gloucester gives, first, of his visit to the Court, and then of his preaching before and dining with the Lord Mayor:

'I brought, as usual, a bad cold with me to town; and this being the first day I ventured out of doors, it was employed, as in duty bound, at Court, it being a levee-day. A buffoon Lord in waiting (you may guess whom I mean) was very busy marshaling the circle; and he said to me, without ceremony—"Move forward; you clog up the door-way."—I replied, with as little, "*Did nobody clog up the King's door-stead more than I, there would be room for all honest men.*" This brought the man to himself.

'When the King came up to me, he asked "why I did not come to town before?" I said, "I understood there was no business going forward in the House, in which I could be of service to His Majesty." He replied, "He supposed the severe storm of snow would have brought me up." I replied, "I was under cover of a very warm house."

'You see, by all this, how unfit I am for Courts; so, let us leave them.'

From various passages, indeed, it appears that Warburton's constitution was not suited to the air of a court, and that his haughty spirit could not bend even at the footstool of his sovereign. Nobody ever saw him without being impressed with the loftiness of his character; and we remember to have heard an anecdote from good authority, which is not generally known,

known, but which is illustrative of this fact. Warburton was once in conversation with his bookseller, when Churchill came into the shop, and silently observed the Right Reverend speaker. When the latter departed, Churchill, affecting not to know who he was, asked the bookseller what was the name of the clergyman who had just gone out, and on being told that it was Dr. Warburton, the Bishop of Gloucester, he exclaimed, "Dr. Warburton! why he looks as if he would say to the Apostle Paul, if he should meet him, *D—n you, hold my horse.*"

Another indication of Warburton's dislike of sycophancy occurs, in a passage which also attributes a similar manly spirit to our present venerable sovereign. We find it in a letter dated November 29, 1760.

'Nichols, Potter, and T. Wilson, of Westminster, preaching one after another, bedaubed the new King, who, as Lord Mansfield tells me, expressed his offence publicly, by saying, that he came to Chapel to hear the praises of God, and not his own. There will be some remove of Chaplains; if he should turn out these three, it would give a general satisfaction.'

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His conversation with the *King of the city* was more sprightly than the St. James's dialogue:

'I preached my *Propagation Sermon*; and ten or a dozen Bishops dined with my Lord Mayor, a plain and (for this year at least) a munificent man. Whether I made them wiser than ordinary at Bow, I can't tell. I certainly made them merrier than ordinary at the Mansion-house; where we were magnificently treated. The Lord Mayor told me, "the *Common Council* were much obliged to me, for that this was the first time he ever heard them prayed for." I said, "I considered them as a body who much needed the prayers of the Church."—But, if he told me in what I abounded, I told him in what I thought he was defective—"that I was greatly disappointed to see no Custard at table." He said, "that they had been so ridiculed for their Custard, that none had ventured to make its appearance for many years." I told him, "I supposed that Religion and Custard went out of fashion together."

It is impossible to glance even in the most cursory manner at all the various topics which are introduced into these letters, or to advert to all the circumstances of literary history to which a great part of the correspondence alludes. Indeed, scholars who are acquainted with the controversies of the last age need not any hints on these heads, and to others the details would be uninteresting. No readers, however, can avoid respecting the steadiness of Warburton's friendship as exhibited in this correspondence, and his earnestness in pushing the fame and fortune of his friend; nor can we contemplate the strength and vivacity of his intellect, without at the same time painfully recollecting the state of imbecility to which it

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was reduced before his death. Such mournful examples are calculated to suppress all literary vanity and pride.

Ad calcem, are subjoined five letters from the Honourable Charles Yorke to Mr. Warburton, some use having been made of them by the editor in Bishop Warburton's Life.

Portraits of the two Bishops properly introduce and characteristically illustrate this volume.

Mo-y. & G. 2.

ART. II. *Caledonian Sketches*, or a Tour through Scotland in 1807: to which is prefixed an Explanatory Address to the Public, upon a recent Trial. By Sir John Carr. 4to. pp 560, and 12 Plates. 2l. 2s. Boards. Matthews and Leigh. 1809.

WHEN the *good-natured* friends of the late Sir John Hill, of quacking celebrity, occasionally reminded him of the *ill-natured* sarcasms on him in the newspapers of the day, he would reply with a smile, "What! do they talk of me? I care not what they say if they do but notice me, for this is a proof that I am worth talking about." Had Sir John Carr possessed the happy feelings of his brother Knight, "My Pocket Book" would never have provoked him to appeal to the Court of King's Bench; nor would his failure before Lord Ellenborough have induced him to enlarge his mortification, by appealing to the public on the result of his trial. What demon could have possessed him, to make him gratify his enemies by an exposure of his irritability, and by now attempting to distinguish between the liberty of the literary press, and that of the caricature press? Surely he thus intimates that, if he be proof against the satirist's pen, he is to be annoyed by the pencil. As, however, the Knight is himself a proficient with both instruments, we think that he would have acted a part more becoming a traveller and a man of the world, if he had treated with equal contempt the ridicule of pamphlets and that of the print-shops; and had smiled at the short-lived malignity which, though it may gratify the spleen of a few, is always sure to die away before a fair and well earned reputation.

The rapidity with which Sir John runs over and describes countries* might induce the remark, that he had a machine for making tours; and though no one would be weak enough to take the allusion literally, it would probably excite a suspicion that the Knight was driving his Pegasus at an unmerciful rate, or, in plain English, was writing himself down. We, however, who have never obtained the character of ill-natured critics, and who had rather "cut up" a fine haunch of venison than any poor author who ever wrote, are happy to observe on the

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* See his *Stranger in France—Stranger in Ireland—Northern Summer*—and *Tour through Holland.*

present

present occasion, that the merit of the volume before us is equal to encounter a few prejudices; and that, with whatever sentiments its readers open it, the impression with which they close it will be favourable to the author. He carries us on agreeably: his Caledonian Sketches, both with the pencil and with the pen, are spirited; and the native Scot, as well as the general reader, will be gratified by the exhibition. Like another Howard, Sir John makes a point of visiting and reporting the state of the prisons; like a traveller fond of comforts, he notices the many good inns which are now to be found in the northern part of this island; and like an agreeable collector, he *looks sharp* after anecdotes and *bon mots.* He improves as he proceeds in the career of authorship; the present volume betrays less of the trick of book-making than his former publications; and if he continues thus to amuse as well as to instruct, he needs not feel sore on being 'lashed with pictures.' Caledonia must rejoice on finding a tourist who labours to obliterate the impressions excited by the surly and illiberal Johnson, and to present a portrait of her which is well-drawn and correctly coloured. The flourishing state and growing population of her towns, the diffusion of literature, the comforts which industry and commerce are gradually introducing, the facilities of conveyance, the state of roads and internal navigation, the progress of agriculture and manufactures, the modes and habits of private life, are detailed, with many other particulars "too tedious to enumerate;" as well as the scenery which is afforded by her coasts, mountains, lochs, rivers, and forests. Sir John does not appear to have been solicitous to reach the *ultima Thule* of the antients, nor even the *Johny Groat's house* of the moderns, since he proceeds no farther north than Inverness, and then diverges to the Western Isles.

Passing over that part of the Tour which does not properly belong to the record, as being descriptive of the author's route from London through Cambridge, York, and Newcastle, to the professed scene of his inquiries, we shall observe that he arrives in Scotland by Jedburgh through the *debateable land:* and he laments that Dr. Johnson had not entered Caledonia in this direction, because 'the sweetness and luxuriance of the scene might perchance have mitigated, if they would not entirely have charmed away, the severity of prejudices which were conceived and cherished by a long residence in the metropolis of England, and which he appears to have quitted (London) for the sole purpose of endeavouring to confirm.'

A great portion of this volume is occupied by a description of Edinburgh; which, while it instructs the arm-chair traveller, must be highly satisfactory to the Scottish nation:

'I have

'I have seen' (says the Knight) 'a considerable number of cities, but have never yet seen one so peculiarly novel and romantic, and very few so grand and impresive, as Edinburgh. The morning after my arrival, I was conducted to the centre of the Earthen Mound, with my back towards the castle, where the contrast of the objects within my view excited at once my astonishment and admiration On my right, upon an elevated ridge, stood the Old Town, with its lofty houses, in sombre and sullen majesty; on my left the New Town, resembling Bath in the gaiety and splendour of its building; below a vast valley, once the bed of a lake; before me the North Bridge, bestriding this valley, and resembling an aqueduct, behind which rise the craggy summits of the Calton Hills, and on the side of them stands the castellated form of the new Bridewell. The imagination cannot form such an assemblage of sublime and extraordinary objects. Nature and art seem to have happily exerted their energies in bringing within one view all the varieties of their powers. The classical eye has discovered some resemblance between Edinburgh and Athens; the castle has been compared with the Acropolis, Arthur's seat with Mons Hymettus, and Leith and Leith-walk with the Piræus. If the North Loch and Cowgate were filled with water, Edinburgh would in a considerable degree resemble Stockholm, which stands upon insulated ridges of rock. This romantic city is constantly presenting a new picture with the progress of the sun, and upon the change of the atmosphere and the season: the stupendous and magnificent rock and castle finely grouping with every surrounding object.

'The situation of Edinburgh must be extremely healthy; it is surrounded by hills on all sides, except to the northward, where the ground gently slopes to the Frith of Forth. It is bounded on the east by the Calton Hills, Arthur's Seat, and Salisbury Crags; on the south by the long ridge of the Pentland Hills, and the hills of Braid; and on the west by the Costorphine Hill; all of them objects of great beauty or interest. So many lofty mountains, and the opening to the north, frequently subject the city to violent, and sometimes terrible, storms of wind, by which persons walking in the streets have been often thrown to the ground; the effect however, upon the whole, is beneficial to the city, as every narrow street and passage is well ventilated. The extent of Edinburgh, from east to west, is about two English miles, and from north to south about the same distance; and its circumference about eight miles.

'The principal part of the Old Town is raised upon a hill, which gradually rises from east to west, where it terminates in a rocky precipice of 300 feet in height, upon the summit of which stands the castle, now rendered, by the improvements in modern warfare, fit only for a garrison, though once entitled to the character given of it by Burns, in his Address to Edinburgh:—

'There watching high the least alarms,
Thy rough rude fortress gleams afar;
Like some bold vet'ran, grey in arms,
And mark'd with many a seamy scar:
The pond'rous wall and massy bar,
Grim rising o'er the rugged rock,

Have

Have oft withstood assailing war,
And oft repell'd th' invader's shock.'

Along the summit of this rocky eminence extends a magnificent street, rather more than a mile long, commencing from the castle, and terminating at the palace of Holyrood-house, called in different parts by the several names of Castle hill, Lawn-market, High-street, and Canongate: other parts of the Old Town are built upon the ridges on either side of this hill, and on the southern hill is raised the new part of the Old Town, in which are several handsome streets, and a mixture of new and ancient houses; this part is connected with the other by a bridge of nineteen arches, only one of which appears, called the South Bridge, thrown over a valley, now formed into a long, dirty, and generally very crowded street, called the Cowgate, the view of which from the visible arch, on each side of South Bridge-street, is equally unexpected and interesting. Towards the North Loch, the houses in the Old Town are of an amazing height, having, from their sloping situation, three or four more stories at the back than in the front.

'The New Town, the great ornament of Edinburgh, is built of stone, upon an elevated plain on the north. The singular beauty of its situation is equalled only by the graceful arrangement of its streets, and the splendid assemblage of its buildings. Yet, compared with the bustle and population of the Old Town, there is a tranquillity in the streets, similar to that which is to be found in Berlin, and which gives it the appearance of being thinly inhabited, and an air altogether melancholy. George's street is very fine: the people of Edinburgh think it injured by what is whimsically called the *impudence* of the clergy, in bringing the church of St. Andrew so forward, and the *modesty* of the physicians, in placing their hall so far back.—

'The number of handsome hotels were amongst the early objects of my admiration. Some of them are as splendid as any in London, and prove the rapid advance which Edinburgh has made in refinement. The rooms are elegantly furnished, and the servants tolerably clean and very attentive. Not many years since, the inns afforded the most wretched accommodations, and the waiters were so filthy that it was whimsically said of them, that if you were to throw one of them against the wall he would stick there. Indeed, so late as the year 1768, a stranger coming to Edinburgh was obliged to put up at a filthy execrable inn, or bad private lodging. The word *hotel* was then only known to those who understood French or old English: but the Caledonian, like the English capital, has experienced great changes for the better.'

In an account of Edinburgh, it was impossible not to advert to the history of the beautiful and unfortunate Mary Queen of Scots: but, instead of being seduced into tales of other times, we shall keep to the writer's sketches of *things as they are*, and transcribe his account of the mode of living among the students of the university of Edinburgh; which is preferable, in many respects, to the practice at Oxford and Cambridge:

'The students, contrarily to the practice which obtains in the English colleges, live how and where they please, attend what lectures they choose, have little or no private intercourse with the professors, and are under no collegiate discipline whatever. A parent or guardian would, at first, naturally exclaim against this total absence of discipline; but no indecorum or inconvenience is found to follow. Young men of moderate fortune are not mortified and depressed by being forced into a style of living and extravagance to which their finances are inadequate. By living in the city, they have it in their power to visit amongst genteel families, and to temper the austerity of learning with the amenity of good manners. Young men, in bodies, have been known, many times, to present formidable opposition to scholastic discipline, and even to the police of towns in which their seminaries were placed, which, as individuals, they would not dare to attempt. By being thus dispersed, and left to the guidance of their own discretion, no cause can well arise for such combination, nor would it succeed were it attempted. Upon inquiry, I could hear of no excesses committed by any of the students, which, in the slightest degree, affected their character as a body; and when it is considered that, upon an average, there are not less than fifteen hundred students at the University, the result of the inquiry is not a little favourable to the conduct of those who come from remote parts of the kingdom, to draw from this great spring of intellect. At all the principal universities upon the Continent, the same mode of treatment, with regard to the students, is adopted.'

Notice is taken of the imports and exports at Leith, the port of Edinburgh, of colleges, churches, hospitals, judicial establishments, prisons, hackney coaches, &c.; and the population of this city is stated at about 100,000. When mention is made of the livings of the clergy in Scotland, Sir John glances at the state of the priesthood south of the Tweed, and risks the imputation of credulity by telling us of 'a curate in the Isle of Wight who cleans the boots and attends the horses of his sacerdotal master.' Could he suppose that such a fact was possible in the Isle of Wight?

After having experienced the civility of the inhabitants, and remarked every thing worthy of observation in the Caledonian capital, the tourist sets off for Queen's Ferry; visits Dumfermline-Abbey, Hopetoun-house, Linlithgow, the Carron-works, Alloa, Kinross, and arrives at Perth; with the approach to and situation of which city he is much delighted:

'The road to Perth is extremely good, and the country presented an appearance of increased luxuriance and cultivation as I advanced. Wood and corn-fields, hill and dale, every where gladdened the eye; and the looks and habits of the peasantry seemed to correspond with the flourishing gaiety of the surrounding scenery. The superb plain of Gowrie, extending for nearly twenty miles, opened in the most unexpected and beautiful manner. A short distance from Perth, the windings

windings of the Tay, the bridge uniting the rich and romantic country on either side, the handsome appearance of the town, the cavalry barracks, and an expanded view behind, offer to the eye the most enchanting prospect. When Agricola and his army first beheld the Tay, and the adjacent plain, upon which Perth at present stands, it is recorded that they exclaimed, with one voice, "Ecce Tibur! Ecce Campus Martius! Behold the Tiber! Behold the Field of Mars!"—The Italians afterwards called the Tay the New Tiber.

'This river, which deservedly excited the eulogium of the Roman legions, is the chief of all the Scottish waters, and has its source in the western extremity of Perthshire, in the district of Breadalbane, on the frontiers of Lorn, in Argyleshire.

'With an exception of the New Town, Edinburgh, the town of Perth, the capital of the county of Perthshire, is by far the best built and most regular of any in Scotland. Perhaps a finer situation for a capital could not be found. The streets are broad and long, well paved, with handsome buildings on either side, and many elegant shops. It appears that anciently particular streets were inhabited by particular artisans, as the names of some, still preserved, seem to indicate. The inns are excellent. It would be tedious, and foreign to my purpose, to describe this beautiful city very minutely; it will be sufficient to observe, that the principal streets, in the old part of the town, are the High and the South street, both of which are very long, and that George-street, Charlotte-street, the Crescent, Rose Terrace, and the Circus, are the most handsome in the new part. This town has been subject to some very destructive inundations, which have caused the streets to be raised from time to time. Many stories, and even whole houses, are to be found below the surface of the street.'

The whole of this county seems to have captivated the traveller: who remarks, towards the conclusion of the work, that Perthshire surpasses in richness and variety of scenery every county in England. How flattering to a Caledonian must be such an acknowlegement from the pen of an Englishman!

Scone, Dundee, and Montrose, are not overlooked: but to Aberdeen, which contains a population of 30,000 persons, more respect is deservedly shewn. The tourist informs us that 'an acre of land is here worth double the rent of an acre in the neighbourhood of London, owing to the absence of poor-rates.' Without calling in question the accuracy of this observation, as a general statement, the cause assigned for the inequality cannot account for it; since the poor-rates of land in the vicinity of the British capital are not equal to the rent.

In the account of the King's College, Old Aberdeen, an anecdote of Dr. Ogilvie is introduced, for the purpose (it is said) of relieving the sombre character of ecclesiastical description:

'The attachment which the Doctor has to the study of astronomy induced him some years since to cross over to Denmark, for the purpose of personally paying his respects to a celebrated professor of his favourite science at Copenhagen. Unfortunately he arrived at a time when a considerable ferment prevailed in the public mind, in consequence of our having taken and detained one of their ships of war, for what cause I do not remember: the professor largely partook of the public anger; and as it is natural to identify a foreigner with his country, as soon as the Doctor entered the room, the former went up to him, and, forgetful of the compliment of such a visit, and thinking only of the outrage conceived to have been offered to the dignity of Denmark, exclaimed, "Sir, I am glad to see you; but, Sir, how dare *you* to take one of our ships?" Upon which the Doctor, with equal coolness and good humour, drily replied, "Sir, do not be offended with me; upon my honour *I* never took a ship in my life." The answer had the intended effect; the professor laughed at and apologized for the length to which his patriotic ardour had carried him, and treated his worthy guest with all the attention due to him during his stay in the Danish capital.'

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We come next to Inverness, the capital of the Highlands; the counties north of which, as we have before remarked, were not explored by the Knight in his Caledonian rambles. This city is pronounced to be the seat of elegance and refinement; and it is here that the policy of education and its effects in the Highlands are discussed. Having previously visited Ireland, the writer is induced to make a comparison of the state of the poor in that island with the condition of the poor in Scotland; and his reflections on this comparison merit the attention of the statesman:

'Politicians have widely differed with regard to the wisdom of enlightening the poor of a country by education. Upon such a subject men of plain understandings would naturally wonder that any variance of opinion could arise. They would conceive that he who prefers darkness to light, who thinks that the common people are most likely to advance the ends of their creation, that they would be more loyal, more brave, and more virtuous, by continuing in a state of ignorance and stupidity, would, by a parity of reasoning, insist that the blind were the most likely to move with certainty, and the crippled with vigour. But a distempered prejudice still maintains that to illumine the head is to extinguish the heart; that if the humble are taught reading, writing, and a little useful arithmetic, they will

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Sir John discusses the advantages of the Caledonian canal, which is an undertaking truly Roman; remarks on the vitrified forts, as they are called; and enters into a brief account of the Gaelic language. Diverging to the west, he then skirts the shores of Loch Ness; of which such a description is given as must excite a wish in the lovers of the picturesque to behold the scene itself:

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Sir John discusses the advantages of the Caledonian canal, which is an undertaking truly Roman; remarks on the vitrified forts, as they are called; and enters into a brief account of the Gaelic language. Diverging to the west, he then skirts the shores of Loch Ness; of which such a description is given as must excite a wish in the lovers of the picturesque to behold the scene itself:

'The ride to Dores, the first and a very short stage, is extremely beautiful; in my way I passed by a Druid's temple, the form of which every one is familiar with. Near this place, upon the top of a hill, the vast watery expanse of Loch Ness, unbroken by islands, twenty-four miles long, and nearly straight from south-west to north-east, opened upon me with all its grandeur. Cultivated fields and a forest of pine formed a corresponding foreground; rocks and mountains—some huge, bare and rugged, and gashed by wintry torrents—others adorned with woods of fir and birch, and all blending with perfect harmony of colouring, in which the heathy purple and a soft yellow seemed to have most diffusion—hung awfully over, or rose with a majestic sweep from the sides of the watery vista, hiding their sublime summits in the clouds. Over many a mile of water the eye beheld its surface, here gently agitated by a partial breeze, there as tranquil as a mirror, reflecting upon its bosom huge fragments of the adjoining crags or mountains; whilst, far in the west, this graceful and sublime scene faded in the sombre mist of distance, and in the darkness of cloud collected from the Atlantic. The prospect led my mind to reflect upon the bright and shaded vicissitudes of life, ending in the gloom of the grave.'

'The attachment which the Doctor has to the study of astronomy induced him some years since to cross over to Denmark, for the purpose of personally paying his respects to a celebrated professor of his favourite science at Copenhagen. Unfortunately he arrived at a time when a considerable ferment prevailed in the public mind, in consequence of our having taken and detained one of their ships of war, for what cause I do not remember: the professor largely partook of the public anger; and as it is natural to identify a foreigner with his country, as soon as the Doctor entered the room, the former went up to him, and, forgetful of the compliment of such a visit, and thinking only of the outrage conceived to have been offered to the dignity of Denmark, exclaimed, "Sir, I am glad to see you; but, Sir, how dare *you* to take one of our ships?" Upon which the Doctor, with equal coolness and good humour, drily replied, "Sir, do not be offended with me; upon my honour *I* never took a ship in my life." The answer had the intended effect; the professor laughed at and apologized for the length to which his patriotic ardour had carried him, and treated his worthy guest with all the attention due to him during his stay in the Danish capital.'

Of the road from Aberdeen to Banff, Elgin, &c. Sir John Carr gives no chearing account; and the approach to Forres was so dull and uninteresting, that he wished to meet *weird sisters*, to relieve the monotony and give a scenic effect. The historian, however, will prefer to witches, the anecdotes of the Pretender inserted in the account of Culloden; and the good christian will be better pleased with the story of a peasant's humanity, which occurs in this chapter.

We come next to Inverness, the capital of the Highlands; the counties north of which, as we have before remarked, were not explored by the Knight in his Caledonian rambles. This city is pronounced to be the seat of elegance and refinement; and it is here that the policy of education and its effects in the Highlands are discussed. Having previously visited Ireland, the writer is induced to make a comparison of the state of the poor in that island with the condition of the poor in Scotland; and his reflections on this comparison merit the attention of the statesman:

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As the tourist proceeds towards Oban, where he embarks for the Western Isles, he experiences all the inconvenience of the very humid atmosphere to which that part of the island is subject. Incessant rains, however, do not so far disconcert him as to relax his mind from its sprightly tone, or from that habit of observation which is so necessary in a gleaner of knowlege for future travellers. He describes the Highlands as 'commencing at Dumbarton, near the mouth of the Clyde, and comprizing the mountainous parts of Scotland from thence to the north and north-west, including the Hebrides.' To afford a picture of the character and civilization of the inhabitants of this sublime and romantic district, a variety of anecdotes and family-sketches are supplied; and it is intimated that, notwithstanding the drain occasioned by emigration to America, the population is increased. Of the improvement of the Highlands in the article of inns, and of the hospitality of the gentry, Sir John makes a very favourable representation: but, according to his account of a Mull equipage, that island is not yet "a land of bridles and saddles." We envied him his visit to Staffa, though it was performed in the rain; since a sight of Fingal's cave, which he not inaptly terms 'the sublime cathedral of nature,' would well remunerate us for the "pelting of the pitiless storm."

"*Littora Skiæ*" the knight did not explore, having, in the island of Mull, *imbibed* sufficient experience of Hybridean humidity. Quitting the family of Ulva-house, where he had been kindly entertained, he seeks the Highland *terra firma*; and, passing up Loch Linnhe by the beautiful island of Lismore, he arrives at Airds, and thence proceeds to Inverary-castle, Loch Lomond, Ross, Dumbarton, Killin, and Dunkeld, in the route to Glasgow, which is the last place noted in this tour. The account of this celebrated and thriving city is included in a single chapter: but, in taking leave of Scotland, the author ventures a poetic flight, presenting us with some tolerable lines on the Caledonian harp; the neglect of which, in favour of the unharmonious bag-pipe, he more than once laments.

We have stumbled on several literal errors in this volume, and on a few expressions which are not strictly English; such as 'gratifications which are violent to sobriety." We shall not specify them, because they may easily be discovered in correcting the book for a second edition: but, without a hint, Sir John may not perhaps discover that at p. 27 he has given the kind-hearted wish of Henry IVth of France to Frederick the Great of Prussia. At p. 471, the tourist must be mistaken, when he speaks of the *south-east* side of the island of Mull as being nearly opposite to Oban.

On

On a principle of public spirit, we would not discourage works of this kind. Whatever leads to a familiar knowlege of the state and resources of our own island, or excites an emulation of improvement, and induces people of fortune to explore our home-beauties, must be serviceable to the empire.

The plates inserted in this volume exhibit views of Edinburgh, Jedburgh, Esk river, Stirling-castle, Perth, Aberdeen, Inverness, Inverary-castle, Dumbarton, Killin, Dunkeld, and Glasgow, executed from drawings by Sir John Carr, which are creditable to his taste and execution as an artist. Mo.y.

ART. III. *A Letter to the Livery of London,* relative to the Views of the Writer in executing the Office of Sheriff. By Sir Richard Phillips, Knt., one of the (late) Sheriffs of London and Middlesex. Crown 8vo. pp. 294. 4s. Boards. Sold by all the Booksellers.

WHILE complaints have been general, and certainly not unfounded, concerning the progress of corruption in various branches of our government, all parties have united in their praises of the judicial administration. Suspicion and detection have mutually produced each other, unfortunately in almost every department: but our tribunals have continued equally pure and unsuspected. If we were to investigate the causes of this high exemption, we apprehend that it would be found principally to result from the publicity of legal proceedings, and the constant recurrence to first principles which is necessarily involved in legal discussion. In every suit, criminal or civil, it is the interest of the losing party to discover some defect in the process to which he is amenable, some error in the application of the law which condemns him, or some deviation from the rule that governs his case: hence the Courts are frequently called to revise their own acts, to superintend the conduct of their officers, to examine the validity of their decisions, and to sift the very grounds of the law; and all these things occur within the observation of anxious parties concerned in the event, of an acute and scrutinizing profession, and of a public equally jealous and enlightened. Thus individual interest, the strongest and steadiest of motives, secures that perpetual vigilance, which has been truly called the condition on which God has granted liberty to man.

Yet whatever reason we may have for boasting of the honesty of verdicts, and the impartiality of judgments, it must be remembered that the subordinate functions of the law are necessarily executed by inferior agents, and without the advantage of notoriety or of public responsibility. Arrests, for

example, must, from their nature, be privately made; and prisoners must be secluded from the general view of their fellow-citizens. The former present as many temptations to avarice as opportunities of extortion: while the abuses to which the latter are liable have a peculiar tendency to harden the heart and degrade the nature of man.

As the sheriff of a county has the legal custody of almost all the King's subjects who are deprived of their liberty, whether before or after judgment, it appears well contrived for the purposes of inquiry and correction that the person holding that office should be annually changed; since inveterate abuses which might escape the animadversion of an established functionary, or in time find a road to conciliate his sufferance, would probably attract the notice of one who is newly invested with powers and duties, and lead him to adopt the necessary measures for reforming the evil. Such, however, has been the reluctance of sheriffs in general to perform this useful service, —a reluctance produced perhaps by the discordance of their former habits, by diffidence in the effect of their exertions, or by actual ignorance of the manner of conducting an office which is wholly intrusted to deputies,— that we do not remember a single appeal to the public, similar to that of which we now proceed to lay the material parts before our readers.

In the autumn of 1807, the author of this letter to the Livery of the metropolis was appointed one of the sheriffs of London and Middlesex, in conjunction with a gentleman of the name of Smith; and both of them seem to have been equally desirous of asserting all the privileges of their office, and of exercising them in the manner most beneficial to the community. Their first act was to enlarge the list of freeholders, of whom the juries are composed; and the number of persons liable to serve on Special Juries was increased from 128 to 400. This is surely a matter of great importance, as it respects both the trial of causes and the general rights of the freeholders. All should take their turn of serving on juries to whom the constitution has committed the interests of their fellow-citizens; as well to insure a real and strict impartiality in every case, as to enable them to exercise the highest and most sacred privilege enjoyed by Englishmen. The number of those who may be called to decide the important questions between the Crown and the subject, which occur in the Exchequer, ought to be sufficiently extensive to exclude all possibility of influence and all suspicion of a monopoly. In the various courts at Westminster Hall, the usual Special Jurymen are as well known as the officers of the Court; and, by a long attendance, they perhaps ultimately acquire the feelings and prejudices of officers,

officers, instead of retaining the unbiasssed openness to conviction, and the disregard of every thing but justice, which would characterize men who were indifferently taken from the body of the freeholders. It is unhappily true that many are glad to be relieved from a burdensome duty, and are ready to plead the distance of their residence and various other reasons for avoiding it: but the exercise of constitutional duties is the price of freedom, which every Englishman ought cheerfully to pay.

On this subject, indeed, the Lord Chief Baron remarks, in a letter to Sir R. Phillips which reflects the highest honour on his liberality and politeness, that "some *experience* in serving upon Exchequer special juries is far from being detrimental to the public or defendants, inasmuch as the instructing jury after jury, in the conduct of many species of manufactures, and the laws on the subject, exposes both parties to the hazard of the points being ill-understood, or hastily determined by them." This difficulty, however, which would prove a great deal too much, is in our judgment inseparable from the Trial by Jury. If verdicts were to rest on the experience and previous knowlege of those who deliver them, and not on the evidence laid before them in each particular case, they might possibly be founded on more accurate information: but is not this utterly at variance with the notion of Trial by Jury? We are also inclined to suspect that the legal or scientific experience of permanent special jurymen, after all, would be far too imperfect to be safely trusted in the decision of causes; while it would often engender a certain half-witted obstinacy, which is not less troublesome to a judge than unfavourable to the demands of justice. Besides, succeeding juries are never composed of exactly the same twelve men, and a single new member would require as much instruction as a new jury.—The sheriff is, however, armed with very insufficient powers to compel an accurate return of all freeholders, who ought to be liable to serve on juries; and some farther legislative provision is necessary to secure an object, of which numerous acts of Parliament attest the importance and the difficulty.

The next act of Sheriffs Smith and Phillips was to protest against the employment of the House of Correction in Coldbath Fields, as a place of commitment. This prison may be properly used for carrying into effect a sentence of confinement, inflicted as punishment on a culprit: but, as the sheriff has the legal custody of all persons who are detained for trial, and who ought to be discharged at the general gaol-delivery, it seems manifestly improper that such persons should be in the power of gaolers, over whom the sheriff has no controul. It

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As the sheriff of a county has the legal custody of almost all the King's subjects who are deprived of their liberty, whether before or after judgment, it appears well contrived for the purposes of inquiry and correction that the person holding that office should be annually changed; since inveterate abuses which might escape the animadversion of an established functionary, or in time find a road to conciliate his sufferance, would probably attract the notice of one who is newly invested with powers and duties, and lead him to adopt the necessary measures for reforming the evil. Such, however, has been the reluctance of sheriffs in general to perform this useful service, —a reluctance produced perhaps by the discordance of their former habits, by diffidence in the effect of their exertions, or by actual ignorance of the manner of conducting an office which is wholly intrusted to deputies,— that we do not remember a single appeal to the public, similar to that of which we now proceed to lay the material parts before our readers.

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is also stated that prisoners are treated in this House of Correction with unnecessary severity, and are deprived of the means of providing for their legal defence. Some other alleged abuses having been submitted to the consideration of commissioners appointed by the King, who have not yet made their report, we shall abstain from mentioning or observing on them.

With regard to the next point, to which the sheriffs directed their attention, it strikes us as highly important:

'The facts are these:—During the first Sessions in which I had the honour to sit as one of the Sheriffs at the Old Bailey, the Grand Jury having returned several bills in Court as *not found*; I was induced, soon afterwards, to ask the keeper of Newgate if those persons had been discharged; and I was much astonished to find, not only that they had not been discharged, but that persons in this situation were always detained till the morning after the Grand Jury had been discharged, when they were brought to the bar, and dismissed by the Court. I learned at the same time that those persons against whom the Grand Jury had found a bill of indictment, and who happened afterwards to be acquitted by the Petty Jury, were immediately discharged. Surprised that persons should continue to be subjected to the restraints, privations, and miseries of a prison, after a Grand Jury had found *that there existed no ground of accusation against them*, I pursued my enquiries among various Officers of the Court, and found that the practice was defended on the ground that *there might be* other charges against these persons; and that it sometimes happened that there were two bills against the same person, only one of which was decided upon in the first instance. Hence it appeared that many persons would be detained for several days, against whom there existed no charge or process, because *it might happen* now and then that some new charge would arise against some one of them.'

The sheriffs, thinking that their authority to detain a man in prison depended only on the charge against him, and that, when that accusation was removed by the verdict of a grand jury, he was as much intitled to his liberty as if the charge had never existed, appear to have agreed on presenting a memorial to the Recorder, stating their disapprobation of the practice: but they *dis*agreed as to the manner of proceeding, and the object was lost. The author, indeed, expresses his hope that his constituents 'will be convinced that (*by him*) *everything was done*' (p. 75), but we think that his own statement proves the reverse. After having observed to the Recorder, in high-sounding phrases, that 'relative to the *restoration* of a *right*, without which the English cease to exist as a free people—a right which formed part of the institutions of Alfred the Great, made a thousand years ago—a right which

was declared by Magna Charta—which has been maintained by rivers of the blood of our ancestors—and which was confirmed at the revolution, Mr. Phillips cannot, as a public officer, enter into any compromise;'—after an avowal that 'the matter has presented itself to the *mind* of Mr. Phillips, in his *official capacity*;'—and after having peremptorily called on the Recorder 'to fix such arrangements as may enable the sheriffs *immediately* to discharge, in the *ensuing* sessions, *every* prisoner relative to whom the Grand Jury may have thrown out the bill of indictment;'—the sheriff is told by the Recorder "that he never would consent to the alteration proposed, and that as long as he lived it should continue as it is;" and the author also hears (p. 226) 'that if the sheriff discharged any prisoner without an order from the Court, the Recorder had threatened to fine the sheriff 500l.' Thus convinced, thus pledged, thus taunted, and thus challenged, we are sorry to say that the patriotic sheriff effects nothing. At the five subsequent sessions which occurred while he was in office, he quietly submitted to the practice which he so violently condemned, though having in his own hands the power of carrying his views into effect, and of ascertaining the legality of a most important constitutional question. This is the more to be lamented, because we are as perfectly persuaded as we can allow ourselves to be on any *ex parte* statement, that the sheriff's views of the law were correctly just. It is expressly enacted by 14 Geo. 3. c. 20, that prisoners, "against whom no bill of indictment shall be found by the Grand Jury, *shall be immediately set at large*;" and independently of any such enactment, he who restrains the liberty of his fellow subject must shew his warrant for so doing. When a man, who is arrested only because a specific charge has been made against him, is acquitted of it by a competent tribunal, where is the authority to retain him? *Cessante causâ, cessat et effectus*; the suspected crime, which alone authorized the imprisonment, is wholly removed; and why is not the prisoner a free man again? If the point had been brought to issue in a question between the Sheriff and the Recorder, and the law were doubtful, the Judges of England are bound to lean in favour of liberty: but, unless some positive act of Parliament can be produced, we find it difficult to conceive a doubt as to the decision. Sir Richard Phillips very properly states some of the hardships that might ensue from the prevailing doctrine, which gives an unlimited scope to injustice and oppression; and he has done well in calling the attention of the public to this point of Old Bailey practice: but we cannot admit his claim to praise for abandoning so important a principle.

We

We shall now attend our official conductor to the prisons under his care:

'The prisons of the metropolis which are properly under the jurisdiction of the Sheriffs of London are NEWGATE, which is the *county gaol*; the POULTRY COMPTER, and the GILTSPUR-STREET COMPTER, which are *the city prisons*, each Sheriff taking cognizance of that Compter, which is the nearest to his residence; and LUDGATE, which is a prison for debtors who are citizens of London.

'In Newgate are generally confined from FOUR TO FIVE HUNDRED PRISONERS, male and female, consisting of county debtors,—felons convicted and unconvicted,—state prisoners—and fines, or those sentenced to a definite term of imprisonment. I learn that there have been as many as SEVEN HUNDRED AND FIFTY confined at one time in this prison, but the average of the present year has not exceeded four hundred and twenty, although at particular times there have been as many as five hundred and fifty.

'When it is considered that Newgate is situated in the centre of this great metropolis, that its external dimensions are only 105 yards by 40 yards, and that not more than a fourth of this superficies can be occupied as dwellings for the prisoners, it will at once be obvious that mere personal restraint is not the greatest evil suffered by those who have the unhappiness to be detained within its walls; I understand that when the number of prisoners exceed six hundred, fevers have generally begun to shew themselves: and in 1789, when the number amounted to nearly eight hundred, a contagious fever broke out, and carried off five or six of the prisoners per day.'

The most crowded parts of this prison are the debtors' yard, and the women-felons' yard. The latter description of persons, varying in number from about 110 to 170, occupy two wards 37 feet by 13, with a sick ward, and three little rooms called the Master's side. 'When they lie down on their floors by night, there must necessarily be the same bodily contact and the same economical disposition of hands and legs as in the deck of a slave ship,' of which the drawing was circulated some time ago. Each woman occupies a breadth of about eighteen inches; and when the wards are full, two or three lie crosswise between the feet of every pair of women, whose heads are next to the opposite walls.—The whole of the debtors are crowded into a corner of Newgate, not fifty feet square. Their situation is nearly, but not quite, as dreadful as that of the women-felons.—The *Poultry Compter* is well known to be almost a ruin: but it still continues to be used as a place of commitment, because, it seems, some of the city magistrates claim the right of committing persons, *where they please!*—The *Giltspur-Street Compter* is calculated for the reception of forty debtors, and on an average it contains eighty five.—*Ludgate* is stated to be inadequate for its purposes, but easily susceptible of improvement.

Facts

Facts of this kind, if generally known, could scarcely be permitted to continue, since the remedy is extremely simple, a larger space being in general the only desideratum required. If the building used by the College of Physicians should be sold, it might be permanently annexed to Newgate, and assigned to the debtors exclusively. Land also might be purchased in other places, and proper receptacles erected for human beings. The great merchants of London, who take pride and delight in charity, need no longer advertize for distant objects of romantic bounty; when they daily pass by so serious an accumulation of misery, of which a great part might be entirely removed by moderate contributions. We sincerely wish success to *the Sheriff's Fund*, laudably established by the gentlemen whose shrievalty we are in fact reviewing.

In the course of these details, various observations are made, and some of them are intitled to notice. It is justly remarked that the gaolers' fees operate as a most serious grievance; and that, in all cases, regular salaries ought to be substituted for them. Some of the evils resulting from the system of transportation also are displayed; and many readers will here learn, for the first time, that although government pays* for the banishment of the convicts, no provision is made for restoring them to their country and friends, at the expiration of their term of exile. The men have sometimes the opportunity of working their passage home: but a seven years' transportation of women is in effect banishment for life. This fate appeared particularly severe in the case of several female convicts, who had already spent in prison two out of the seven years to which their punishment extended; and the propriety of completing a Penitentiary, which was *enacted* between twenty and thirty years ago, but has never been seriously undertaken, for the reception of less hardened offenders, is enforced with great shew of reason. Objections are taken to loading prisoners before trial indiscriminately with irons, for the convenience of the gaoler, who would otherwise find some difficulty in distinguishing the numerous individuals in his custody; and the *bail-docks* (i. e. the room connected with the bar at which criminals stand during their trial at the Old Bailey,) are said to be in general so much crowded as to produce some danger of infection. Sheriffs Smith and Phillips made an order that six only should be assembled there at one time, rightly judging it better that the Court should occasionally wait five minutes for a

* The expence is considerable. Between 7 and 800 persons are annually transported, at the rate of about 120l. a head.

prisoner,

prisoner, than be exposed to a contagious fever from the suffocating steam of an unwholesome dungeon.

The last subject here considered is the conduct of sheriffs' officers in making arrests, and the management of lock-up houses, more commonly designated as spunging-houses; a familiar title, which is too justly derived from the gross impositions practised in them. An act passed in the thirty-second year of the last reign contained many judicious and humane regulations, which had been long neglected, but were again put in force by the late sheriffs. The fees were reduced within moderate bounds; a table of them, with a list of all the parliamentary regulations on the subject, was placed within the observation of every arrested person; and all bailiffs and others, who should be guilty of extortion in their office, were threatened with immediate dismissal. We may remark, however, that no precautions, be they as prudent as they may, are likely to be here effectual, unless the sheriffs will resolve to employ the most persevering personal vigilance, in checking the rapacity of their agents.

Having touched on all the material points discussed in this volume, we must say a word on the *manner* in which they are treated. We wish that it had been such as would recommend the important objects for which the writer has contended: but too much is said of himself, and too little regard is evinced for the feelings of others. A tone of overbearing mightiness pervades the work; and Mr. Sheriff Phillips speaks with as much contempt of his 'worthy colleague,' as Mr. Constable Dogberry does of his superannuated comrade. The name of the *senior* sheriff is wholly omitted in the statement of many official acts of importance; and no sooner does a slight misunderstanding arise on a point of form, than charges of 'evasion and equivocation' are freely insinuated, and 'his character for honour and fair dealing' are declared to be 'at stake.' On the other hand, the style of addressing members of the government is so stately, and at the same time so impassioned, as to resemble rather the verbose ceremonial of diplomacy, and the courtship of the old heroic romance, than a plain statement from respectable and independent citizens of London, on points involving the well-being of their fellow-citizens. Why should these worthy gentlemen '*intreat* Lord Hawkesbury to accept the most respectful assurances of their *personal attachment* and *devotion* to his Lordship?' Why should Mr. Sheriff Phillips inform the Chief Baron, that he has 'discovered urbanity and liberality to be the *leading* and *actuating traits* of his personal character?' And why must the livery of London have these and twenty other similar expressions repeated to them, in

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correspondences most uselessly preserved and reprinted? As to Sir Richard's reiterated professions of the purest motives, they appear to us unnecessary: but of this every man can best judge for himself.

We must add that this volume is so cheap, in proportion to the existing prices, that the writer, who is perhaps better known to the world as a bookseller than as a sheriff, may be reasonably suspected of an intention to expose the extortion of his brethren in the trade. In perusing it, we have been tempted, however, to wish that it were twice as dear, and contained but half its present materials; omitting almost all the letters, and a large proportion of the comments; and preserving little more than the facts stated, with extracts from particular acts of Parliament. All that is valuable in the publication would then have a fair chance of being universally read. — We now close it, without farther exposure of faults, in the hope that it may be found serviceable to the public, by exciting the attention of the respectable gentry who are called to the office of sheriff in their several counties; and by proving that, in a great variety of instances, the most important reformations are fortunately the most practicable.

Den.

ART. IV. *A History of the Island of St. Helena*, from its Discovery by the Portuguese to the Year 1806; to which is added an Appendix. By T. H. Brooke, Secretary to the Government of St. Helena. 8vo. pp. 409. 10s. 6d. Boards. Black and Co.

A RESIDENCE of fifteen years at St. Helena, and access to the official records of the island, must be supposed to have rendered Mr. Brooke fully competent to write its description and its history: but when we also consider the perspicuity of his style, and the judgment discovered in his reflections, we are disposed to regret that a mind, which is evidently equal to undertakings of more general interest, should have confined its exertions to a topic of such limited attraction. We are, however, glad to receive this volume from his hands, and may hope hereafter to obtain more important proofs of his assiduity and information.

The superficial extent of the island, as we are told by Mr. Brooke, is about 30,000 acres. It is divided by a lofty chain of hills, running nearly east and west in a curved direction; and from this chain, alternate ridges and valleys branch off in various quarters. The summits of several of these hills are very elevated; and one of them, Diana's Peak, rises nearly 2700 feet above the level of the sea. The extent of the island is somewhat less than eleven miles by seven. Springs issue from

from the side of almost every hill: but, as they have neither volume nor sufficient length of current, they form only inconsiderable rills. We consequently find no cascades of any magnitude, for although one stream projects its whole quantity from a height of about 300 feet perpendicular, it becomes a shower before it reaches the cavity below. — The author describes the romantic prospect of Sandy-bay in the following words:

'The hills on the left, richly clothed with trees to their very summits, display a wonderful contrast to the wild and grotesque nakedness which triumphs on the right, where shelving cliffs, surmounted by huge perpendicular or spiral masses of rock, are multiplied under every shape and aspect. The downward view consists of a variety of ridges, eminences, and ravines, converging towards the sea, into one common valley. Among this scenery are interspersed the dwellings of planters, the different forms of gardens and plantations, and the pasturing of cattle; the prospect closing with the distant sea, rushing in between two black, craggy cliffs, which the surf whitens with its spray.'

The climate may be considered as a medium between those of Europe and those of India, the height of situation counteracting the effects of vicinity to the Line. The use of the settlement to the public consists in its being a station of refreshment to homeward-bound Indiamen. South Sea whalers also resort thither, both for fresh provisions and for the protection of convoy in their passage home. The average number of ships which touch annually at St. Helena is 165. Provisions are consequently very dear, mutton being from 14d. to 18d. per lb., pork 18d. to 20d., fowls 9s. to 12s., and geese 25s. to 30s. The population, exclusive of the garrison, is somewhat above 2000, of whom three fourths are blacks. The price of labour is high, a mechanic requiring from five to seven shillings a day. The sovereignty of the island is completely vested in the East India Company; and the military force consists of a corps of artillery, a regiment of infantry, and the island volunteers.

After having given a very distinct description of the island in his first chapter, Mr. Brooke proceeds to its history from its discovery by the Portuguese in 1501 on the 21st May, (the Anniversary of Helena, mother of the Emperor Constantine,) to the present time. In this detail, we acknowlege that we have no wish to accompany him, the subject having, in our opinion, very little claim to general attention; and however important it may be to the East India Company to possess an accurate narrative of the conduct of the different Governors, and a collection of the principal island-acts and documents, as exhibited in Mr. Brooke's appendix, the public would have been

been more gratified with a shorter statement. Omitting, therefore, that series of local transactions which have assumed a false magnitude in the author's eyes, we shall direct our attention to a few of the valuable observations with which he has interspersed his pages.

The advocate of humanity will learn with satisfaction that the history of St. Helena affords a striking example of the policy of a mild treatment of negroes. Until 1787, the laws relative to them were extremely severe, and conspiracies were frequent among them: but since 'they have been placed on a footing more suitable to men than to brutes, no insurrection or even serious risk has either taken place or been apprehended.' Until 1787, the evidence of blacks, although conclusive against persons of their own colour, was not admissible against whites; and we have some notable examples of the consequences of such a system. In 1785, Elizabeth Renton, a white inhabitant, in a fit of passion, stabbed one of her female slaves with a carving knife; and the slave died in a few moments. The verdict of the Coroner was "wilful murder;" and the grand jury presented a bill of indictment to the same effect: but, as the only witness was a black, and of course inadmissible against the accused, she escaped. In 1786, a planter named Worrall, and his slave, were detected in the act of sheep-stealing; as the proofs against them rested on the testimony of blacks, the white man could not be brought to trial: but the slave was convicted and sentenced to *death*, although he had acted under the coercion of his master. Such was the law: but the judges were sufficiently equitable to reprieve him, and recommend him to pardon, which was granted.

In the early part of the history of the colony, a system of laws, founded on those of England, was introduced: but it was soon found too complicated for so small a settlement. It was therefore judged expedient to proceed by jury only in criminal cases, and to leave matters of less import to the Governor and Council, who were recommended not to have "their heads troubled with nice points of the common law of England; but rather, on considering the reason of things, to adjudge of all cases in a summary way, according to equity and a good conscience, without tedious delays, or countenancing litigious persons in their vexatious proceedings." Such was the commission given to the judges of St. Helena; and it deserves our attention not only as a plain and candid communication, but as a summary of judicial duty in any situation and in any country. How much would the inhabitants of Great Britain have gained in individual comfort, and how much

much would they have saved in wasted labour, had the form of proceeding in our courts been fashioned on the plan of promptitude which is here recommended! This passage is an extract from the orders of the East India Company; and Mr. Brooke has quoted several of the communications from Leadenhall Street, written in the spirit of the old school, before the Directors became the sovereigns of an extensive territory. All these letters bespeak the men of business; they convey orders in a style of frankness and precision; and they express the motives of the Court in very plain terms, but with a fund of solid argument which would do no discredit to the more polished compositions of the present age.

The inhabitants of St. Helena, however, were not so fortunate in receiving medical as in obtaining legal advice. The wetness of the climate and the moist qualities which they ascribed to yams, their principal article of food, made them imagine that an antidote to such evils was to be found only in the free use of spirituous liquors; and they were confirmed in this notion by the superficial pretenders to medicine, who in that age acted as surgeons on board of the Indiamen. We give an extract from the letter of a St. Helena Governor to the East India Company dated in 1717:

"As an alteration of weather often happens here in less than an hour's space, from sultry heat to very cold, and the mountainy parts of the country are not only windy, but always exposed to great damps and fogs, even in the times we call the dry seasons, we are apt to think it easier to drink water for a constancy in England than in this place. The physical people we sometimes converse with (that is, the ship-surgeons) tell us, that strong liquor is necessary to all people who have no other bread but these watery roots (for a yam is called the water parsnip); and we also find it so; wherefore, though we shall encourage temperance and sobriety, as well by our example as precept, yet it is in vain to dissuade the use of arrack among these people, who prefer it before the choicest wines."

In treating of the internal economy of the island, Mr. Brooke describes emphatically the dangers of impounding the goats which feed at large on the cliffs and precipices. The negroes, inured to this task from their childhood, tread their way through ledges on which a single slip would prove destruction; while the shouts, by which they impel the goats towards the pound, are re-echoed through the abyss beneath. The succeeding little anecdote may give some idea of the nature of the country:

"In the year 1734, a sailor, on his return from the country, wandered among the cliffs at Ladder Hill, which overhang the sea, and found himself at last in a place where he could neither turn, nor sit down

down, nor discover any method of escape. In this perilous situation he remained until the following morning, when perceiving a party going to swim, he threw his shoes down to attract notice. He succeeded, and was soon relieved by the natives, who ventured within a few fathoms of him, and lowered down a rope, to which he fastened himself, and was hauled up.'

Of the various governors whose transactions are related in the present volume, Col. Brooke and Col. Patton will principally attract the reader's attention. Colonel Brooke had acquired reputation in the Company's service in Bengal, and was appointed Governor of St. Helena in 1788. One of his first acts was to disuse the practice of flogging among the military, and to rouse again that sense of shame which had been nearly extinguished by the application of the lash. He commuted stripes for labour, and separated from their comrades those who appeared hardened, allotting them a table by themselves under the expressive designation of the "miscreants' mess." These marks of odium soon corrected even the worst among the soldiers; and so much improved did their condition become, that numbers of discharged men returning from India undertook a renewal of service in St. Helena. It was also under Governor Brooke that the fortifications in the heights were rendered effectual, the use of signals adopted, the access to the landing-place improved, the farther importation of slaves interdicted, and the condition of those who were resident on the island ameliorated. He likewise took a most active part in those exertions which terminated in the capture of seven sail of Dutch Indiamen, by the Sceptre man of war, in the year 1795. It deserves notice that the Malays, taken out of the Dutch ships, entered the British artillery service, and proved not only very useful but extremely peaceable in their conduct. A behaviour, so different from that which is often ascribed to them, is to be attributed to the manner in which they were treated. No European was suffered to strike or chastise them on any pretence whatever; and they were punished by no other authority than the sentence of a court martial composed of Malay officers. These men were afterward sent to Ceylon, and a Malay regiment was engrafted on the two companies which had been thus trained at St. Helena.

On Governor Brooke's return home, Col. Patton became his successor in 1801. He had filled the situation of military secretary to the Government of Bengal, and was known to the public as the author of "the Principles of Asiatic Monarchies*." He was successful in improving the ordnance

* For a Review of this work, see M. R. N. S. Vol. 41. p. 285.

department, in amending the morals of the black inhabitants, in increasing the quantity of timber, and in short in every way in which extensive knowlege and a happy ardour for public improvement could have scope in the situation which he filled.

The author concludes with several suggestions for the farther improvement of the island. He considers its retention as of great importance to us, although we remain in possession of the Cape; the anchorage at St. Helena being far preferable, because no wreck is ever known to have occurred there, except one, which happened on the day of its first discovery.

We have perused this volume with considerable satisfaction; and in those passages in which our gratification has been interrupted, the fault was not in the execution. Mr. Brooke's language is so generally correct, that we do not recollect any phrase which demands remark, except the following in page 211. 'Few are inclined to exertion when the object tends to the advantage of *public posterity*, rather than to immediate individual benefit.'—It is to be regretted that the book did not contain a map of the island, in addition to the perspective view of an interior scene, which forms a frontispiece. LO.

ART. V. *Blackheath*; a Poem, in Five Cantos; Lumena, or the Ancient British Battle; and various other Poems, including a Translation of the first Book of the Argonautica of C. Valerius Flaccus. By T. Noble. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Richardson, &c.

WE do not often meet with a volume of poetry, on which we feel justified in bestowing so much commendation as the present. The first and principal composition in the book is in blank verse, and chiefly resembles the style and manner of Thomson. Being almost wholly didactic, however, on that account it appears to us in some degree to want interest; since, though abstract ideas and general topics of reflection may be extremely well expressed, and though a great variety of them may be brought together, it is to the portraits of human Beings, to the elucidation of human characters, and most of all to the natural description of human actions, that we look for subjects of the most lively and permanent interest. Johnson once remarking that Shakspeare's description of Dover cliffs was the grandest and most affecting instance of the natural sublime in the English language, one of his hearers mentioned the speech of Almeria among the tombs in the first Act of *The Mourning Bride*, as equalling it in grandeur

and gloomy horror. The Critic paused a moment, and then remarked that Shakspeare's picture contained a human figure—

"Half way down
Hangs one that gathers Samphire;"—

which was wanting in the other, and that therefore Shakspeare was to be preferred. It is precisely in the use of this beauty that our great dramatist, more than any poet in the world, and Thomson, more than any poet of his class, are admirable. Both of them can paint inanimate nature in the justest colours, and both can embody the perceptions and reflections of the mind in the best and most appropriate language: but they know how inferior is the interest excited by such subjects, to that which we feel in the contemplation of our own nature; and they generally display their art in making the former subservient only to the latter.

Poems, of the same nature with that which we are now criticizing, being supposed to be written as the author rambles through the country, in course we expect that he will describe the fields and the hedges; with the grass and the corn which enliven and enrich the one, and the wild roses and thorns which adorn the other; and that, as he walks alone, he will tell us much of what passes in his mind: but, at the same time, we hope to hear a little of the people whom he meets. Even in solitary and contemplative walks, we are always pleased at the interruption of our reveries if a pretty milkmaid, or a groupe of clean and rosy looking peasants, rouse our attention in passing; or if we have the opportunity of observing practically the difference of "*before*" and "*after*," by seeing the rustic lover attentively hand his nymph over even the lowest and the easiest stile, or the clownish husband turn his back on his wife, and leave her to tumble as she can over the roughest and most aukward of these barriers. All walks, it is true, do not afford the same sources of amusement; and perhaps no one could be chosen in which human beings are less picturesque and poetical, than that in which Mr. Noble has laid the scene of his poem. Few but the rich and gaudy citizens, or the wretched and squalid mechanics of the metropolis, are to be found in its vicinity. A highwayman, indeed, might be encountered,—and highwaymen are a very good sort of people for a poet, (at least in the estimation of Mr. Pratt, author of *The Highwayman's Soliloquy*, and Mr. Southey, author of the *Botany-Bay Eclogues*:—but Mr. Noble has fortunately met with none of these gentry. We are therefore obliged to contemplate him alone in his ramble, and hear him describe the country through which he passes, together with the

ideas of his own mind; and we will do him the justice to say that, under these circumstances, he is an elegant, well-informed, and agreeable companion. As a specimen of his didactic powers, we would quote the address to Independance, at the opening of the 4th Canto: but his picture of the old sailor, watching the ship, in which he had served, coming up the river to be broke up at Deptford, will be more entertaining. It is very happily conceived; and in the execution of it the author does not, in our opinion, fall short of the best passages in Thomson:

'Pensive beneath yon solitary elm,
An aged seaman sits:—fixed is his eye
On the refulgent stream that flows below,
Where the rich radiance, an impervious mist
Of brilliant light, plays on the sparkling waves,
And with suffusive lustre veils the scene.
His only arm o'ershades his aching sight,
That pierces, anxious, thro' the dazzling air,
And rests upon its object (scarcely seen,
Yet known to the best feelings of his heart)
The vessel that he fought in from his youth:—
She, on whose deck he often joined the shout
Of battle and of victory,—she, whose sides
Enclosed the field of all his manly force,
The scene of all his friendships:—not a plank
But bears some mark of blood, which once he loved!
On this side, by the foremost cannon, fell
His own right arm, when in pursuit she spread
Her crouded sails, and on the dastard foe
Bore down Britannia's thunder.—Slowly now,
She drifts up heavily upon the tide:
As when an eagle, wounded in 'mid air,
On languid pinions motionless awhile,
Floats on the aërial current, so she moves,
A shattered burden on those very waves,
That often with their sparkling spray have kissed
Her welcome prow, and, resonant, have dashed
Their silvery spume against her rapid sides.
But ah, more swift than when the courted gales
Swelled her expanded canvas, does the mind
Of this poor mariner retrace her course
On distant oceans:—by the tempest driven
He braves the mountain billows, or, involved
In all the dreadful dissonance of fight,
Rends down the colours of the boarded foe!
On his rough brow Remembrance fondly gleams:
His brightened cheek thro' all its wrinkles smiles:
While frequent 'cross his eye, his moistened sleeve
Drawn hastily, wipes off some starting tear.'

The episode of the ruined farmer, in the 4th Canto, will be found equally well executed; and we only regret that we have not more passages of the same nature, and fewer of the didactic. The episode in the 5th Canto is too long and common-place, and wants interest.

Lumena, the next poem in the volume, although not so long nor so various as the first, is in our judgment greatly superior to it in poetical merit. The design appears to be well suited to Mr. Noble's powers; which qualify him, we think, to excel more on subjects in which a vigorous and spirited mode of expression can be used, than on those in which tenderness and pathetic simplicity are required. *Lumena* is the wife of Carwellyn, a chief of the Iceni; and, according to the custom of the times, she goes to the field with her husband, who falls fighting by her side. The songs of the bards celebrating the warriors who die in the battle, and of Lumena describing the glory and death of Carwellyn, with her own exertions first to save him and afterward to rescue his body from the enemy, (which are well connected with passages of description and narration,) form the principal topics of the poem. It opens with Carwellyn's address to Lumena, and to his soldiers; and then follows a description of the battle, which we extract. We certainly meet with nothing better of the kind in the *Bard* or in *Marmion*:

'Twas thus, amid the ICENIC bands,
With throbbing heart and upraised hands,
CARWELLYN spake:—his beauteous bride,
LUMENA, prest his ardent side.
Her eyes, where love and glory burn'd,
Their brilliant fires upon him turn'd,
And, while he spake, with heightening glow,
She pointed, eager, towards the foe.
When two proud streams their course incline,
And near a precipice conjoin,
High swoln their waves united roll,
They foam, impatient of controul,
The opposing rock in fragments tear,
And the black pines, uprooted, bear;—
So fierce, impetuous, on their foes,
This double tide of valour flows.
LUMENA shook the rattling reins;
The ensanguined wheels foam'd o'er the plains:
The dead were crushed 'mid seas of gore;
Their rapid scythes the gasping bore:
And, followed by vindictive ghosts,
They hurry, where the thickening hosts,
Confused, like some impervious cloud,
Thundered, 'mid dust and darts, aloud.

As, when, by night, rude blasts rush forth,
Armed with the terrors of the North,
Unseen destruction strews the ground,
Promiscuous ruins crash around,
And mingled horrors, with dismay,
Oppress the rising, trembling, day:—
So raged the battle, horror veil'd;
Death's night, with deepening shades, prevail'd;
Demons, enrobed in vapours, stood,
Quaffing new streams of human blood:
While Devastation's furious mien,
Warriors, and clashing cars, between,
Here, amid hurtling arrows rose,
There, with the javelin, gleaming woes,
Flashed quick across the groaning plain,
Doubling, with varied deaths, the slain.
ANDATE,* Conquest's awful form,
Like the red lightening, 'mid the storm,
Moves on her rapid, rustling, plumes,
A meteor 'mid the battle's glooms:
With shouts that shake the bursting skies,
Ten thousand Ghosts around her rise;
And, as her wide wings rush along,
Behind her spreads the gleamy throng,
Anxious, while she, with wavering wreath
Suspended o'er the hosts beneath
In doubtful hesitation, bends
Now here,—now there;—at length, descends
Where the ICENI, dreadful, spread
Their wide pursuit o'er heaps of dead;
Hurl deaths o'ertaking those who fly,
Join groans with shouts of victory.'

Of Mr. Noble's miscellaneous and smaller pieces, we cannot speak in terms of equal commendation. Indeed, they are all below mediocrity.—We are sorry, also, that he has spent his time in translating the *Argonautica*; a composition which, to say the best of it, holds but an inferior rank among the remains of Latin poetry. Yet we are ready to acknowlege that many parts of it possess considerable merit,—especially of that sort which Mr. Noble, from the bent of his own genius, is the most likely to admire; we mean, such merit as consists in elevated and sonorous expression: but, really, the *Fleece* is so stale that it is difficult to endure it;—and we cannot forbear smiling when we find the translator comparing his author to Virgil. In a preface of considerable length, Mr. Noble dwells on the importance attached to the Argonautic expedition, and details some of the theories which have been formed to explain the story; such as that it was typical of the

* Goddess of Victory, among the antient Britons.

earliest

earliest invention of the maritime art, and the first practice of commerce between nations; that the ship into which the treasure was conveyed was named after Chrion, which signifies a ram; and other conjectures. He seems to think that this expedition 'has, in point of consequence, an equal claim to attention with the Trojan War;' and he asks 'why have not the authors who have made it their theme risen to equal celebrity?' He satisfactorily answers this question, indeed, by 'acknowleging that the accounts of this event are more involved in fable; more entangled with extraneous circumstances; and less capable of regular construction than those parts of the Siege of Troy and its consequences which have become so famous by the poems of Homer and Virgil.' This, in our opinion, is not all. Whether we regard the events in question as historically true, or as fabulous, we can look only to the genius of their historians, or inventors, for the sources of the interest which we are to take in them. Those sources of interest are a clear and polished narration, a just delineation of character, and most of all a consistent and well-framed action, supported by causes and motives of sufficient importance to excite our attention. Judging by this criterion, can the story of the Argonauts be compared with that of the Siege of Troy? The cause of the one (we speak now only of the story as it is told, without considering whether it is to be understood literally or as a type,) is a "*Golden Fleece*," — a thing which can have no existence in nature; and which, if it could, would be more a subject of curiosity to children than to men and warriors, whatever false interest and importance may be given to it by Oracles and Prophesies: while the other is founded on one of the most common and natural springs of human action—*Revenge;*—and that passion roused by one of the most acknowleged and cruel injuries that man can suffer from man,—the seduction and rape of a wife. It is to this difference, principally, that we must refer for an answer to Mr. Noble's question. In vain do Orpheus, (or whoever wrote in his name,) Appollonius, and Flaccus, exert all their skill, and the praise of considerable skill must be allowed to each of them; pathos, sublimity, and the imagery and figures of poetry, are thrown away, when they are exerted to dignify an action which, after all its pomp, is but the voyage of a few Grecian pirates in search of a "*Golden Fleece.*"

It is admitted that Mr. Noble's preface is ingenious and entertaining, and that he writes as a gentleman and a scholar; we dissent only from him in thinking that, on all occasions, he entertains too high an opinion of the author whose work he is translating, and forms too low an estimate of Apollonius, the predeces-

sor, and (it is but justice to add) in every respect the equal of that author. The present volume contains the translation of only one book of the poem ; and we confess that in that portion we find nothing of the smallest interest, or of any extraordinary poetical merit, if we except the account of the storm at sea, which is greatly inferior to the similar passage in the first book of the Æneid, in every point in which it is not a servile imitation of it. Mr. Noble has offered a very respectable translation of this book : but we shall better do him justice by quoting, from his preface, a translation of that part of the second book in which Venus instigates the Lemnian women to murder their husbands, on their return home, attended by female slaves whom they had brought with them from Thrace. After having described the arts of Venus, (in the form of Dryope,) designed to arouse the jealous fury of the wives, the poet thus proceeds :

'Swift thro' each bosom rush'd her startling moan,—
All their struck nerves its kindred tremors own,
While vengeful Venus reigns in every part,
And conquers e'en the fond maternal heart.
Now gaze they on the ocean, and advance,
Along the shores, in well dissembled dance,—
With festal wreathes adorn each sacred place,
And greet their husbands with a false embrace.
Home and the genial board they next prepare,
And spread the lofty couch with treacherous care :
Then, with bewilder'd haste, and mock caress,
Smothering their rage, each husband's bosom press ;
Thus, in the midnight of the infernal den,
Tisiphone reclines with guilty men ;
To shuddering Phlegyas and to Theseus clings,
And her black snakes around each bosom flings ;
In all their dreadful banquet takes her part,
And presses them (their torment) to her heart.
Now Venus shakes the cloudy torch on high,
And floods of smoke in wavy volumes fly :
On every side the deepening shade extends,
Thro' which towards trembling Lemnos she descends,
Girded for contest : tempests round her rise,
And broken flames flash faintly thro' the skies,
While, in applausive peals, her father's hand
Rolls the full thunder o'er the fearful land :
Thence with unusual tones her accents sound,
Redoubling all the horror wide around :
Athos and Pontus and the Euxine lake,
Thro' their dark depths in awful terror shake :
Each mother starts in horror from her rest,
And clasps her fear-chill'd infant to her breast ;
Then, as the concubine of Mars commands
In thunder, and gives signal to their bands,

Terror

Terror rush'd forth,—and, with infuriate pace,
Distracted Discord left the stalls of Thrace:
Black Wraths around in livid groups were seen,
Deceit's foul form, and Slaughter's horrid mien;
Death in his most gigantic shape appear'd,
And high his crimson hands, exulting, rear'd.
Venus meantime her height of vengeance dares,
And scenes replete with direful crime prepares:
With groans, and gasping shrieks, and dying cries,
Thro' every house tumultuously she flies:
A sever'd head all-agonized she bore,
Her panting bosom smear'd with recent gore,
Her hair erect—"Lo! here," she shouted "view
What to the violated bed is due!
I first—but, see! the rapid morning breaks!"
Straight, all the rage of jealousy awakes;
Through every chamber she impels their speed,
And finds them deadly weapons for the deed.'

This is well expressed, and gives the sense and spirit of the original accurately enough, except in the last line, which but tamely renders

"*et cunctantibus invenit enses.*"

Mr. Noble's errors, in his original poems, consist chiefly of an undue inflation of language, with a dryness and sterility of style. In any other than very able hands, something of this fault is inseparable from blank verse: but it should therefore be constantly in the poet's contemplation; and all his efforts should be directed to counteract this unpleasant effect of the materials which he chooses to employ. In Mr. N.'s translations, the same failings are to be found; and he does not always catch the true sense of his original. The following is an instance:—When Jason in the 7th book leaves the presence of Æetes, and Medea is anxiously following him, the poet says;

"*Illa domum atque ipsos paullum procedere postes*
"*Optat, et ardentes tenet intra limina gressus:*"

meaning, we conceive, that, knowing she dared not cross the threshold, she wished the palace to move with her and bear her nearer to her lover:—but Mr. Noble translates it thus:

'Now that the obstructive pillars would retire
And the walls part, becomes her fond desire,
While on the threshold her fixed eyes she strains,
And his last hasty footsteps there retains.'

A few other and similar instances might be found: but they are not worth the trouble of detailing.

Mr. Noble promises that, 'if his translation of the Argonautica is well received, he shall feel himself called upon to bring

bring forward the remaining books, with such a continuance of the subject to the conclusion of the voyage as may be derived from the works of other authors.' We would by no means discourage him from exercising himself in any compositions which he may consider as best adapted to his genius: but we would advise him to prefer original composition; and at all events, as it is probable that he may become a favourite, (especially where it is so desirable to be welcome, at the toilette and in the Drawing Room,) we would caution him against setting down any favours which he may receive to a false account. We are convinced that he will be indebted for them to his Lumena, and his Blackheath, and not to his translations from either Valerius Flaccus or Horace.

It is but proper to remark that the present volume is embellished with beautiful engravings, from the pencil and graver of the author's brothers, and that it is very ornamentally printed.

Hodg.

ART. VI. *Memoirs of the Public Life of the late Right Honourable Charles James Fox.* By R. Fell. 4to. pp. 603. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Hughes. 1808.

IF the reader expects to find in this volume an elaborate and well-digested account of the illustrious subject of it, he will certainly be disappointed: but if on the other hand he treats it as one of those ephemeral productions, which seek to convert into miserable gain the curiosity of a moment, he will not do it justice. Regarded as a production drawn up in haste, it is creditable to the powers of the author. None but an ardent admirer of the original whom he sketches could, in the short time devoted to the task, have atchieved what this writer has accomplished; and a congeniality of sentiments and views with our memorable statesman, united to an enthusiastic veneration for his memory and character, can alone account for the rapid and happy movements of his pen. A style which is flowing and not generally inelegant *, a judicious selection of passages from Mr. Fox's speeches, a lucid and convincing exposition of his principles and maxims, and a just conception of the leading features of his character, constitute the attraction which renders it impossible for an admirer of that orator who has once taken up this volume, to lay it aside unread. The narrative, the observations with which it is accompanied, and the quotations which it includes,

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* Of its occasional incorrectness, however, one specimen will afford a sufficient idea:

'He was the strenuous oppugner of those rights, which he afterwards became the most eloquent and impassioned vindicator *of*.'

place

place before our eyes the man himself; and while we feel the value of what we once possessed, we are sensible of the magnitude of our loss. Ascribing to it this general praise, however, we would not be understood to deny that it might owe much to future revisal and impartial examination, and that in its present state it deprecates rigid criticism. We design to submit to our readers a few extracts from it, which cannot fail to interest, while they justify and corroborate our observations.

The author's object is thus stated:

'His idea was, that a digest of the recorded opinions of Mr. Fox (even imperfect as they are, either through the negligence or the incapacity of newspaper reporters) would comprehend the discussion of almost all the great questions that have in any ages engaged the attention, or divided the interests, of mankind. No person in the least acquainted with the proceedings of the British legislature for the last thirty years need be told, that there is scarcely any subject of importance on which Mr. Fox has not left something like a recorded opinion; and, in the judgment of the compiler of the sheets that follow, it was one of the most striking features in the intellectual character of that illustrious man, and in which he far excelled all his contemporaries, that though no orator ever scrutinized local and temporary politics with more acuteness and sagacity than he did, his opinions, divested of their particular reference, are applicable to any times and circumstances, and may be appealed to in all ages and countries as conveying the soundest precepts of moral and political wisdom.'

In the short account of Mr. Fox's birth and lineage, the writer passes over (we think, without any good reason,) the very humble situation in life of Mr. F.'s grand-father's father, which it has been said was that of a day labourer:

'The right honourable Charles James Fox was the third son of Henry first Lord Holland, by lady Georgiana Carolina, eldest daughter of the second duke of Richmond. He was born on the 24th of January 1749. O. S. which answers to the 13th of January according to the new computation. On his mother's side he inherited the blood of the Stuarts and of Henry of Navarre: on his father's his ancestors were respectable but not noble. Sir Stephen Fox, the father of Lord Holland, held several distinguished appointments at the court of Charles II., and was some time master of the horse to that monarch. He was a person of much piety, and of a noble and generous disposition. The churches of Farley in Wiltshire and Culford in Suffolk, which he rebuilt from the ground, remain monuments of the former; and his donation of above thirteen thousand pounds to the military hospital of Chelsea, of which benevolent institution he was a zealous patron and promoter, is a striking example of the latter. Sir Stephen Fox, in 1703, married a second time, at the advanced age of seventy-six years, and had two sons, both of whom received the honour of the peerage, Stephen, the eldest, being created

created by George II. Earl of Ilchester, and Henry, the second son, Lord Holland, by His present Majesty.'

Of Mr. Fox's father, the first Lord Holland, the author says:

'He had but few pretensions indeed to the character of a statesman in the enlarged sense of the term, and those pretensions, such as they were, he laboured so assiduously, through the whole course of his life, to absorb in the more profitable occupation of a courtier, that it would be difficult to form any accurate judgment of his capacity for the higher departments of government. His talents for managing the House of Commons were certainly of the first order; but if this expressive phrase be allowed its full force, it is little praise to say, what is all that is implied by it, that he intrigued as successfully as Mr. Harley, or corrupted as happily as Sir Robert Walpole. He lived and acted in times of a passive mediocrity of talents and events, and his capacity was well suited to such times and the associates with whom he acted.

'But whatever were the errors of the political life of Lord Holland, no man most assuredly ever discharged the duties of a father with superior, probably none with equal, tenderness and affection. A warmth and enthusiasm that it would be difficult to describe, entered into his attachment for his children, and animated all his views respecting them. No intrigues of state, nor any business of office, were ever permitted to divert his attention from the important task he had fondly imposed on himself of superintending their education. Charles James, the illustrious subject of these memoirs, was his favourite from his infancy. His father early perceived in him strong indications of a powerful and commanding genius, and anticipating the future value of his mind, neglected no means to improve and ripen his opening talents.

'It was a maxim which Lord Holland invariably pursued, to assist and follow, but in no case whatever to circumscribe or restrain, the perfect exercise of their free-will in his children. The various eccentricities of his infancy and youth, which early stamped with the bold features of originality the character whose improvement he had most at heart, were uniformly treated by him with unbounded indulgence. The utmost latitude of his pleasures, and even of his projects and his whims, never, perhaps, in a single instance, occasioned an exertion of paternal authority. His Lordship, it has been said, could advise, importune, and even condescend to stipulate, but never ventured to command his favourite son.

'From his earliest youth, the infant statesman was encouraged to deliver his sentiments with freedom on all subjects, and without restraint in all companies. His first indications of thought and ingenuity were sedulously cherished, and whatever could interest his heart, charm his imagination, or improve his understanding, happily selected, and occasionally thrown in his way for that purpose. This naturally produced a habit of thinking with freedom, and speaking with readiness, at all times and in all places, and probably contributed not a little to that facility of comprehension, and quickness at reply, for which Mr. Fox was afterwards so pre-eminently distinguished in the House of Commons.'

Various

Various circumstances which have been related, and some of which are here detailed, prove that to the injudicious indulgence of his parent must be ascribed much of that alloy by which Mr. Fox's great character was sullied in early life. In particular,

'The invincible passion for gaming, which accompanied Mr. Fox for so many years of his life, and was a source of such infinite vexation to himself, and concern to his friends, as well as a perpetual subject of sarcastic animadversion for his political opponents, is generally supposed to have had its rise in the following circumstance. — At the age of fourteen, Mr. Fox accompanied his father to Spa, at that time a place of fashionable resort of the most distinguished characters from all parts of Europe. Here it is said that Lord Holland excited in his youthful mind a passion for play, by allowing him five guineas a night to be spent in games of hazard'.

Lord Holland preferred a public to a private education for his son, and accordingly sent him first to Westminster school and afterward to Eton. In those seminaries he was distinguished by the brightest promises of genius, by uncommon fondness for and proficiency in classical learning, and by 'levities as bold and extravagant as his scholastic attainments were masterly and unrivalled.' From Eton he went to Oxford, where he was equally remarkable 'for the brilliancy of his parts, the extent of his acquirements, the vivacity of his conversation, and the dissipation of his manners.' At the University he did not long remain, but obtained his father's permission to travel abroad; and

G 2.

'At this period, (says Mr. Fell,) the continent must have presented a highly interesting spectacle to the mind of a philosophical traveller. If public prosperity was not at its height, if some things were wanting to complete the happiness of nations and individuals, there was still much in the aspect of public affairs to gratify and console the attentive observer, and the future augured still more favourably for the general interests of humanity. The peace concluded between England and France early in 1763, had speedily been followed by a general pacification, and various circumstances seemed to promise a lasting continuance of the public tranquillity. The disposition of the court of France was decidedly pacific; the enmity so long subsisting between the houses of Austria and Brandenburg was almost worn out, and Maria Theresa and Frederic the Great, now both grown old under a succession of wars which tended only to exhaust their dominions, were mutually anxious to give repose to their subjects. Holland was in a state of decrepitude indeed, but not of absolute abasement; the renown of her former greatness served as a substitute for her present want of power. The Austrian Netherlands were in a flourishing condition; and Germany, through her hundred states, under the prospect of a permanent peace, was rapidly recovering from the multiplied disasters in which she had been involved on account of quarrels

foreign

foreign to her interests. In the south of Europe, Italy had enjoyed a peace, with very slight interruptions, of between thirty or forty years continuance; but the people, under arbitrary and impolitic forms of government, had not reaped all the benefits they ought to have derived from the auspicious state of their affairs. The extravagance of their governors, the ignorance of their nobility, and the incessant demands of a numerous, indolent, and rapacious priesthood, joined to an universal corruption of manners, prevented them from enjoying the advantages of their situation. On the whole, however, the kingdoms and states which I have passed over in rapid review, wore the visible appearance of ameliorated times; and the mild aspect of the political sky, in proportion as it promised a continuance of the blessings of tranquillity, dispelled the mists of national jealousies, inclined the continental powers to harmonize cordially together, to forget their former prejudices and antipathies, and to seek by mutual concession and good offices, to conciliate their mutual convenience and interest. It was a period of returning confidence, and the nations of the continent were forward in their several advances to meet the good opinion of each other.

'All the old governments of Europe were then in the plenitude of their splendour and authority; and with the different forms of society, and diversity of civil institutions, which had existed for centuries, and every where presented themselves to his view, must have afforded subjects of profound reflection to the vigorous and comprehensive mind of Mr. Fox.

'Few of the particulars of his tour have transpired; but it is impossible to conceal, that his indulgence in all the follies and excesses, so incident at that period to a British youth of family and fortune, far exceeded all bounds of moderation, and obliged his father to recal him before he had visited Rome. Mr. Fox is said to have obeyed the parental mandate with great reluctance, and not until it was oftener than once repeated. A writer who seems to have been well acquainted with the private character of Mr. Fox says, "We can easily imagine how susceptible his heart must have been to the fascinating charms of French vivacity, and, at the same time, how very natural it was for one of his temper to swallow the intoxicating draughts of Italian luxury. Whether it was the splendour of foreign courts, the festivity of select societies, the power of beauty, the charms of science, or the delirium of the gaming table that arrested him, is uncertain; but it was not until after the most earnest and pressing importunities, both from his father and friends, that he determined on returning to England. The extreme prodigality and extravagance imputed to him, and the vast debts which he is said to have contracted in almost every capital on the continent, are among the innumerable desiderata in his story, to which no facts, yet offered to public investigation, have afforded any thing like a satisfactory solution. And, since no panegyric would be decent or sufferable, as little censure ought to be expected or admitted, without the most circumstantial and positive evidence."

'At this period, singular as it may appear to those who have not seen the anecdote, and only recollect the plain and simple dress

which

which distinguished Mr. Fox during the latter years of his life, he was a beau in the most extravagant acceptation of the term, and aspired to the praise of leading the fashions in the article of dress. In point of *red heels*, *Paris cut velvet*, and other fopperies of a similar description, he vied with the most egregious coxcombs of the age. These and similar qualifications he displayed at most of the courts of Europe which he visited in the course of his tour; and it was said of him, "that if he did not return like his maternal ancestor, Charles II., with all the vices of the continent; he at least brought back a wardrobe replete with all its fashions."

Another instance of his father's strong partiality, as well as of his disregard of the wholesome political regulations of his country, appears in the circumstance of his procuring for his son a seat in parliament, when he was only in the nineteenth year of his age. The motives of the parent, which were the hopes of withdrawing the son from juvenile dissipation, and the commencement of the young senator's career, are warmly displayed by the author.

G.2.

'Not only (he continues,) was no notice taken of his incapacity to sit in the house on account of his nonage, but he gained very perceptibly on his auditors by every speech he made, and soon became a favourite with both sides of the house. There was a propriety and vigour, says an author to whom we have more than once already had occasion to offer our acknowledgments, a manliness and majesty in what he said, which it was impossible for impudence to confront, or sophistry to withstand. His wit, his irony and invectives, were not more poignant and forcible than his candour was striking, his reasoning perspicuous, his application fair, and his manner liberal and unaffected. He never rose, as most juvenile orators do, in the midst of a warm debate, merely to expose their own vanity, and insult the patience of the house. He never repeated his lesson like a schoolboy, or exhibited a deplorable imitation of any eminent speaker, or obtruded a dull farrago of common-place remark on his honourable auditors, while their sensibility was roused by the importance of the question, or the eloquence it occasioned. He never exhausted one half of his speech in apologizing for the other, or lost the attention of the house by bestowing his own on any thing that did not deserve it. In such a popular assembly, where so many able speakers are always on the watch to stand up, it requires no little prudence for a young orator to fix on the precise time when his observations will have the best effect. Mr. Fox always spoke as genius and occasion prompted; but never seemed desirous of preventing any member's taking the precedence, nor once fatigued, disgusted, or hung on the ears of, his auditors. His orations, for the most part, were the spontaneous effusions of his own noble mind, delivered without any affectation of superior attention to the subject, without the least mixture of pride or supercilious dogmatism, or any apparent consciousness of those unrivalled merits, which even his antagonists must have allowed him to possess. As a proof of the estimation and reverence

verence in which his powers were held, it has been observed, that he never offered himself to the speaker's eye when he was not equally acceptable to the whole house, nor opened his mouth but the most profound silence ensued.'

That Mr. Fox, on his first entrance into the House, supported government is well known: but the causes of his disagreement with the ministry with which he was associated, and of his retirement from office, have never been satisfactorily assigned. The writer before us gives the following view of those events:

'A variety of causes have been assigned for the rupture which took place between Mr. Fox and the minister, and ended in the dismission of the former from his seat at the board of Treasury. It has been supposed and urged with great plausibility, that Mr. Fox, conscious of his vast superiority over all his competitors, was dissatisfied with the subordinate appointment he held, and looked up to a station of consequence and responsibility more worthy of his acknowledged talents. Lord North had flattered his ambition with the hopes of a seat in the cabinet; but, in proportion as his claims to that distinction became better founded, the minister shewed less inclination to gratify his wishes, or realize those high expectations which he had himself raised and encouraged. Lord North probably dreaded the introduction of a coadjutor into the cabinet, whose abilities he viewed with jealousy, and whose independent spirit he could not hope to govern. On the other hand, it has been asserted, that Mr. Fox's disappointment did not originate with the minister, but in the secret power then lodged behind the throne, which guided the reins of government, and was the fruitful source of all those misfortunes which afterwards fell so heavily on the nation. Those who maintain this opinion, argue very rationally, "that had the minister acted entirely from himself, his own discernment must have taught him that no purchase was too high for a character, whom he could neither keep without honour, nor lose without danger. One, at least, of very inferior sagacity, might have easily foreseen, that in proportion as he was serviceable as a friend, he would also be formidable as an enemy. But the interior cabinet, despairing of being able, in every instance, to bend him to their purpose, and not finding him that pliant and passive tool which their dark despotic edicts required, took the rash and abortive resolution of annihilating his consequence, by putting an abrupt and immediate end to his official existence."'

Mr. Fox's dismissal was sudden, abrupt, and rude in the manner of its communication to him: but he continued to vote in favour of the administration for some time, and did not even remove from the treasury-bench, until the treatment which he had experienced became publicly known.

G.2.

'His motive (says Mr. Fell) for this forbearance may, perhaps, be traced to an amiable and pious unwillingness to disturb the declining days of his father by an open and avowed dissent from those principles of

of public conduct to which Lord Holland had steadily adhered through life, and which he had anxiously laboured to cultivate in his son, as the readiest and surest course to power, emolument, and honours. Some respect was undoubtedly due from Mr. Fox to the opinions and partialities of a parent, who had treated him with such unbounded indulgence and affection, and to whom he was attached by so many endearing and irresistible obligations. Could he, in whose heart all the charities of human nature were closely interwoven, and whose disposition, to the last moments of his life, retained all the gentleness, benignity, and kindness, of infantine feeling, without any mixture of the moroseness of philosophy, or the arrogance of superior attainments, be censured that he halted between the stern dictates of public duty and the tenderer, but not less powerful, claims of filial gratitude?

'The demise of Lord Holland, which happened in the summer of 1774, released Mr. Fox from the embarrassment here alluded to, and left him at full liberty to pursue the enlightened conclusions of his own judgment. Accordingly, he withdrew himself from the mercenary herd of ministerial adherents, and threw all the weight of his great talents into the scale of opposition.'

We now come to the period at which Mr. Fox commenced his operations in that field of political warfare, in which he was destined so long to continue, so brilliantly to shine, and so unsuccessfully to combat. Mr. Fell thus relates the opening of the campaign: G. 2.

'His first opposition to the court measures was on the subject of the Boston port bill, and the disfranchisement of the colony of Massachusets bay, which came under the consideration of parliament in the spring of 1774, in consequence of the open resistance which the inhabitants of Boston had made to the invidious tea-duty. Even at this early stage of this unhappy contest, his enlightened mind foresaw the evils that were likely to result from it; and with prophetic sagacity he predicted, that the measures which administration were pursuing would prove, in the event, more sanguinary than the proscriptions of Sylla, and could terminate only in the slaughter of their fellow subjects and the ruin of their country.

'From this period Mr. Fox took an active share in all the debates and proceedings of the American war; ably and eloquently advocating the rights of the oppressed colonists; and exposing with intuitive discernment the blunders and mistakes of administration. The band of illustrious patriots whom he joined in opposing the despotic measures of the court were at first few in number, but strong in talents, integrity and reputation In the Upper House they could boast of the sopport of the Earl of Chatham, who, though sinking under the weight of years and infirmities, exerted himself with all the energy of youth in defence of the sacred principles of liberty and humanity; by the side of this venerable statesman were to be found the Marquis of Rockingham, a nobleman adorned with every private and public virtue; Lord Camden, a name never to be mentioned but with respect and gratitude; the Dukes of Grafton and Portland, Lord Shel-

burne, and other peers of independent character and sound political principles. In the House of Commons the foremost ranks in the opposition were occupied by Mr. Burke, Colonel Barré, and Mr. Dunning, men very different in their powers, but all endowed with exquisite talents: in florid declamation, or what may be called the picturesque of eloquence, Mr. Burke surpassed Mr. Fox, but in close, unsophisticated argument Mr. Fox was greatly his superiour; Colonel Barré excelled in repartee, his eloquence was feeling and pathetic, and occasionally aspired to grandeur of sentiment; and Mr. Dunning was a profound and logical reasoner, who thought and argued with an enlargement of mind rarely to be met with in men of his profession; but neither of these orators possessed that comprehensiveness of intellect which distinguished Mr. Fox, and led him to predict almost literally the ruinous consequences which ensued from the pernicious measures he opposed.'

On the occasion of the subsequent desertion of several of those who, in the spring of 1780, had joined the popular cause, the author states that Mr. Fox pronounced 'one of the most keen and pointed philippics that was ever heard in the walls of the House of Commons.'

'No calls to order, nor any other means, could either check the torrent of his eloquence or restrain the bitterness of his invective.

'A tergiversation so grossly flagrant and unexpected roused his utmost indignation. He declared the vote of that night to be scandalous, disgraceful, and treacherous. He did not apply these charges to the gentlemen, who had, along with the minister, opposed the resolutions of the 6th of April. These gentlemen acted an open, consistent, and a manly part, in opposing the address proposed on the present day. They had differed from him; he was sorry for it; but he could not blame them, because they differed from him upon principle.

'But who could contemplate, he said, without a mixture of the greatest surprize and indignation, the conduct of another set of men in that house—those who had resolved that the influence of the crown was increased, and ought to be diminished; that the grievances of the people ought to be redressed; who pledged themselves to that house, to the nation, to their constituents, to each other, and to themselves, that it was their duty to redress the grievances complained of; and who had now shamefully fled from that solemn engagement?—Like the case of an individual, who engages to pay a sum of money, or incur a penalty, he insisted that they had solemnly entered into a bond, with the people of England, to withstand the encroachments of prerogative, and to destroy that enormous overgrown corruption which threatened the very existence of their liberties.—But, though they had thus pledged themselves to redress the grievances of the public, they were not, it seems, to be bound by ties the most sacred and forcible. Such a conduct was unaccountable to him on any other motives than those of the basest treachery.

'No man, he said, held those who were habitually at the devotion of the minister in greater contempt than he did. They were slaves

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of the worst kind, because they sold their own liberty to effect the slavery of others. Yet base as the tenure of their places was, they still possessed the virtues of fidelity, gratitude, and consistency, nor added to their other demerits the absurdity and treachery of one day resolving an opinion to be true, and the next declaring it to be a falsehood. They had not deceived their patron, their friends, or their country, but had fairly adhered to their avowed sentiments. This conduct, so far as it went, was entitled to his approbation. He could forgive the man whom he saw voting regularly with the minister, through thick and thin, on every question; he could view him in his servile state, the abject puppet of despotism, with sentiments of commiseration; he could excuse his cringing and bowing at the levee of the prince or the premier; every creature knew best how to act in his own element; but when he witnessed men affecting the very principles at one time which they opposed at another, it filled him with horrour. His inmost thoughts revolted at such a shameless versatility of sentiment. It reduced politics to a mere science of loss and gain. It made the duty of representation a farce. It was an insult on the faith of the nation; and exhibited parliament to the world as acting without any regard to right or wrong.'

From this period, the writer observes, nothing remained to fix the political character of Mr. Fox:

'He was decidedly the most popular senator in the kingdom; not from a concurrence of fortuitous circumstances in his favour, like those which elevated Mr. Pitt, when distinguished as the *great commoner*, to such a height of popular applause, but from a conviction operating through the nation at large, that the public good was the paramount aim and end of his conduct.—From the period of his quitting the court party, he had inflexibly proved himself, what a member of the House of Commons ought to be, a vigilant guardian of the rights and liberties of the people: he cherished and watched over their interests with unceasing solicitude: he considered the great body of the people as radically invested by nature with all the majesty of authority and law, and that whatever militated against their happiness was contrary to the true end of government. Though obliged by national habits and legislative forms to act as a party-man, there was nothing of petty cabal, low-mindedness, or insignificance in his system of opposition; it was directed to great interests and objects, and actuated by noble motives. The corruptions of the court had no allurements for him. He regarded himself, what about this time he began to be popularly designated, as the MAN OF THE PEOPLE; he had no feelings or interests separate from theirs; and prosecuted no views of which their advantage was not the ultimate object.'

Mr. Fell then proceeds to a sketch of Mr. Fox's *private* character at this æra; and it is fairly represented that the erroneous propensities of his early days continued to tarnish the lustre of his maturer years. The chances of the hazard-table, and the equally uncertain sports of Newmarket, had invincible

attachments for that mind, which was so nobly calculated to judge of the fortunes of national war and the operations of a legislature; and a total mismanagement of his own pecuniary affairs lamentably distinguished him who could acutely detect the errors of the public financier. Warmly as Mr. Fell admires the political life of his hero, he is not blind to his errors as a man; and perhaps it is chiefly in a want of justice to Mr. Fox's adversaries, that this author's prepossessions will be seen to have intrenched on his impartiality.

The latter parts of this volume are less interesting, but only as being more generally known, and fresher in every person's recollection. To enter into a detail of them, and to observe on them, would be highly gratifying to us, if our space and our other duties admitted. So much do the extracts from the speeches retain of the spirit and characteristics of this great orator's effusions, that, if nothing more complete be likely to come before us, we should be glad to see them collected together under the superintendance of some one of his numerous intelligent friends. If we suffer the mass of civil and political wisdom, which they contain, to be lost through neglect, we shall stand convicted of the last degree of insensibility, and of extreme injustice towards posterity.

ART. VII. *Sermons on several Subjects.* By the late Rev. William Paley, D. D. Subdean of Lincoln, Prebendary of St. Paul's, and Rector of Bishopwearmouth. 8vo. pp. 527. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

COMPLAINTS are often made of the inefficacy of preaching, without adverting to the chief cause of this failure. Man, as a moral and religious Being, frequently acts a very strange and inconsistent part; and it is extremely difficult to teach and manage him by exhortation. He assents without being touched, hears the serious preacher with declared satisfaction, but without correspondent feelings, and owns the importance of religious principle without being religious. With such a creature, something more than the exhibition of general views must be attempted. The ordinary operations of the mind, as they affect the religious principle, must be minutely analyzed; and those sentiments and affections which lurk about the heart, and disincline us to the spiritual life, must be so detected and exposed to the inward monitor, as to baffle the arts of self deception, and make us ashamed of the farce which we are playing with our own souls. The discourses of Dr. Paley have this great aim. They are neither pretty nor fine compositions: but they are plain and searching; calculated to tear off the mask with

with which we often veil ourselves *to ourselves*; and to set every man on that close examination of his own mind, which is necessary to excite in the soul any activity in repelling sin, or in cultivating inward purity. With a perfect knowlege of the human heart, he developes those hidden springs of action, which, though they set in motion the whole moral machine, (if we may use the expression,) pass unobserved by the generality of mankind. Were we to ask men whether they do not prefer the favour of God to his displeasure, and a state of happiness to a state of rejection in a future state; whether virtue be not preferable to vice; and whether "he who walketh uprightly" does not walk more surely than the sinner; — the answer would be uniformly in the affirmative: — but how little does that answer accord with the overwhelming immorality of the world? Here the contrariety, between the principles which we admit and the practice which we adopt, is a fair matter of exposure: but it requires no little management to make us consistent. Declamations against infidelity and irreligion have no effect on the hearers of sermons; because addresses of this kind they cannot apply to themselves: nor are they more sensibly moved by calls to the unconverted. The probe must be particularly applied. The unbelief of the believing, the irreligion of the religious, and the immorality of the moral, must be scrutinized. Even by the majority of church-goers, Christianity is made to consist of a sort of accommodation, by which they mean to keep on favourable terms both with God and Mammon, — to be good enough to cherish the hope of heaven, and yet not so good as to preclude all worldly conformity.

If any sermons can reach such puzzling cases, those of Dr. Paley may be expected to succeed. They appear not to have been intended by him for general circulation*; and in one respect they are better for this circumstance; since they are unostenta-

* The advertisement says, 'The author of these sermons, by a codicil to his will, declared as follows: — "If my life had been continued, it was my intention to have printed at Sunderland a volume of sermons—about 500 copies; to be distributed gratis in the parish; and I had proceeded so far in the design as to have transcribed several sermons for that purpose, which are in a parcel by themselves. There is also a parcel from which I intended to make other transcripts; but the business is in an imperfect unfinished state; the arrangement is not settled further than that I thought the sermon on Seriousness in Religion should come first, and then the doctrinal Sermons; there are also many repetitions in them, and some that might be omitted or consolidated with others." The codicil then goes on to direct, that, after such disposition should have been made respecting

ostentatiously practical, consisting for the most part of that plain and serious argumentation and expostulation, which a sensible believer would employ in the parlour towards friends for whose spiritual welfare he felt the deepest concern. Though he appears to us not to be correct in the explanation of all his texts, and not to be most happy in his elucidation of some difficult theological points, yet as a Christian moral philosopher he perfectly knows his ground, and he has taken the most effectual means of bringing the religious principle into full activity.

Of the thirty-five discourses which are included in this posthumous volume, the first is intitled *Seriousness in Religion indispensable above all other Dispositions*; and it is throughout illustrative of those remarks which we have made on that sort of preaching which the state of the Christian church requires. Dr. P. manifests his liberality in the very act of censuring levity, and judiciously instructs his readers to guard against the effects which commonly result from the ludicrous exposure of those who are supposed to carry their religious zeal to a great excess. We shall copy the passage to which we refer, because we have no desire in our arguments with the Methodists about certain doctrines, to avail ourselves of the aid of calumny and misrepresentation; and because we should be happy to lead Christians of different communions to deal fairly with each other. After having shewn the impossibility of implanting serious considerations in a mind which is possessed by a spirit of levity, Dr. Paley minutely traces its pernicious operation.

'A cause which has a strong tendency to destroy religious seriousness, and which almost infallibly prevents its formation and growth in young minds, is levity in conversation upon religious subjects, or upon subjects connected with religion. Whether we regard the practice with respect to those who use it, or to those who hear it, it is highly to be blamed, and is productive of great mischief. In those who use it, it amounts almost to a proof that they are destitute of religious seriousness. The principle itself is destroyed in them, or was never formed in them. Upon those who hear, its effect is this. If they have concern about religion, and the disposition towards religion which they ought to have, and which we signify by this word *seriousness*, they will be inwardly shocked and offended by the levity with

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ing the manuscripts as might be deemed necessary, they should be printed by the Rev. Mr. Stephenson, at the expence of the testator's executors, and distributed in the neighbourhood, first to those who frequented church, then to farmer's families in the country, then to such as had a person in the family who could read, and were likely to read them; and finally, it is added, "I would not have the said sermons published for sale."—These directions were fulfilled: but the fear of a surreptitious sale induced the Executors afterward to publish the discourses.

which

which they hear it treated. They will, as it were, resent such treatment of a subject, which by them has always been thought upon with awe and dread and veneration. But the pain with which they were at first affected goes off by hearing frequently the same sort of language; and then they will be almost sure, if they examine the state of their minds as to religion, to feel a change in themselves for the worse. This is the danger to which those are exposed, who had before imbibed serious impressions. Those who had not, will be prevented, by such sort of conversation, from ever imbibing them at all; so that its influence is in all cases pernicious.

'The turn which this levity usually takes, is in jests and raillery upon the opinions, or the peculiarities, or the persons of men of particular sects, or who bear particular names; especially if they happen to be more serious than ourselves. And of late this loose, and I can hardly help calling it profane humour, has been directed chiefly against the followers of Methodism. But against whomsoever it happens to be pointed, it has all the bad effects both upon the speaker and the hearer which we have noticed: and as in other instances, so in this, give me leave to say that it is very much misplaced. In the first place, were the doctrines and sentiments of those who bear this name ever so foolish and extravagant (I do not say that they are either) this proposition I shall always maintain to be true, viz. that the wildest opinion that ever was entertained in matters of religion, is more rational than unconcern about these matters. Upon this subject nothing is so absurd as indifference; no folly so contemptible as thoughtlessness and levity. In the next place, do Methodists deserve this treatment? Be their particular doctrines what they may, the professors of these doctrines appear to be in earnest about them; and a man who is in earnest in religion cannot be a bad man, still less a fit subject for derision. I am no Methodist myself. In their leading doctrines I differ from them. But I contend, that sincere men are not, for these, or indeed, any doctrines, to be made laughing-stocks to others. I do not bring in the case of Methodists in this part of my discourse, for the purpose of vindicating their tenets, but for the purpose of observing (and I wish that the observation may weigh with all my readers) that the custom of treating their characters and persons, their preaching or their preachers, their meetings or worship, with scorn, has the pernicious consequence of destroying our own seriousness, together with the seriousness of those who hear or join in such sort of conversation; especially if they be young persons: and I am persuaded that much mischief is actually done in this very way.

'A phrase much used upon these occasions, and frequent in the mouth of those who speak of such as in religious matters are more serious than themselves, is, "that they are righteous over much." These, it is true, are scripture words; and it is that circumstance which has given currency to the expression: but in the way and sense in which they are used, I am convinced that they are exceedingly misapplied. The text occurs once in the Bible, and only once, that is in the book of Ecclesiastes, 7th chap. and 16th verse. It is not very easy to determine what is meant by it in the place in which it is found. It is a very obscure passage. It seems to me most probable,

bable, that it relates to an external affectation of righteousness, no prompted by internal principle: or rather to the assuming the characte of righteousness, merely to vaunt or shew our superiority over others to conceitedness in religion: in like manner as the caution delivere in the same verse, "be not overwise," respects the ostentation wisdom, and not the attainment itself. So long as we mean b righteousness, a sincere and anxious desire to seek out the will God, and to perform it, it is impossible to be righteous over-muc There is no such thing in nature: nor was it, nor could it be, the in tention of any passage in the Bible, to say that there is, or to authc rize us in casting over-righteousness as a reproach or a censure upo any one.'

In the sermon on the *Taste for Devotion*, rules are given fc the use of public forms, which, howsoever obvious, are gene rally wanted:

'Forms of public worship must, by their very nature, be in great degree general: that is, must be calculated for the averag condition of human and of Christian life: but it is one property the devotional spirit, which we speak of, to give a particularity our worship, though it be carried on in a congregation of fello Christians, and expressed in terms which were framed and conceiv for the use of all. And it does this, by calling up recollectio which will apply most closely, and bring home most nearly to ou selves, those terms and those expressions. For instance, in publ worship, we thank God in general terms, that is, we join with th congregation in a general thanksgiving; but a devout man brings church the recollection of special and particular mercies, particul bounties, particular providencies, particular deliverances, particul relief recently experienced, specially and critically granted in t moment of want or danger, or eminently and supereminently vouc safed to us individually. These he bears in his thoughts; he appli as he proceeds; that which was general, he makes close and circu stantial; his heart rises towards God, by a sense of mercies vouc safed to himself. He does not, however, confine himself to those vours of Providence, which he enjoys above many others; he des not dwell upon distinction alone; he sees God in all his goodness, all his bounty. Bodily ease, for instance, is not less valuable, not ss a mercy, because others are at ease, as well as himself. The same of his health, the use of his limbs, the faculties of his understandig. But what I mean is, that, in his mind, he brings to church mercis, in which he is interested, and that the most general expressionsof thankfulness attach with him upon particular recollections of god ness, particular subjects of gratitude; so that the holy fervour of is devotion is supported; never wants, nor can want, materials to ct upon. It is the office, therefore, of an internal spirit of devotioto make worship personal. We have seen that it will be so with thanks giving. It will be the same likewise with every other part of dine worship. The confession of sins in our liturgy, and perhaps in alli turgies, is general; but our sins, alas! are particular: our conscience

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not only acknowledges a deplorable weakness and imperfection in the discharge of our duty, but is stung also with remembrances and compunctions, excited by particular offences. When we come, therefore, to confess our sins, let memory do its office faithfully. Let these sins rise up before our eyes. All language is imperfect. Forms, intended for general use, must consist of general terms, and are so far inadequate. They *may* be rehearsed by the lips with very little of application to our own case. But this *will* never be so, if the spirit of devotion be within us. A devout mind is exceedingly stirred, when it has sins to confess. None but a hardened sinner can even think of his sins without pain. But when he is to lay them, with supplications for pardon, before his Maker; when he is to expose his heart to God; it will always be with powerful inward feelings of guilt and calamity. It hath been well said of prayer, that prayer will either make a man leave off sinning, or sin will make him leave off prayer. And the same is true of confession. If confession be sincere, if it be such as a right capacity for devotion will make it to be, it will call up our proper and particular sins so distinctly to our view, their guilt, their danger, their end; whither they are carrying us; in what they will conclude; that if we can return to them again without molestation from our conscience, then religion is not within us.'

The discourses on *the Love of God*, on *Meditating on Religion*, on *Purity of Heart*, on the *Doctrine of Conversion*, on *Prayer in Imitation of Christ*, on *Insensibility to Offences*, on *Seriousness of Heart*, on *Neglect of Warnings*, on the *Terrors of the Lord*, &c. have all a searching nature; and no man of any reflection can rise from the perusal of them without self-examination. Though Dr. P. represents practical Christianity as comprized in three words, *devotion*, *self-government*, and *benevolence*, he knew that this concise view of the subject was insufficient to enforce these great duties, and he has therefore enlarged with minuteness on the above-mentioned obligations. On the doctrine of conversion, he has made some very proper distinctions. Here he remarks:

'I am willing to believe, that there are very many Christians, who neither have in any part of their lives been without influencing principles, nor have at any time been involved in the habit and course of a particular known sin, or have allowed themselves in such course and practice. Sins, without doubt, they have committed, more than sufficient to humble them to the dust; but they have not, to repeat the same words again, lived in a course of any particular known sin, whether of commission or neglect; and by deliberation, and of aforethought, allowed themselves in such course. The *conversion* therefore, above described, cannot apply to, or be required of, such Christians. To these we must preach, not conversion, but *improvement*. Improvement, continual improvement, must be our text, and our topic; improvement in grace, in piety, in disposition, in virtue. Now, I put the doctrine of *improvement*, not merely upon the consideration

deration, which yet is founded upon express Scripture authority, that whatever improvement we make in ourselves, we are thereby sure to meliorate our future condition, receiving at the hand of God a proportionable reward for our efforts, our sacrifices, our perseverance, so that our labour is never lost, is never, as St. Paul expressly assures us, in vain in the Lord; though this, I say, be a firm and established ground to go upon, yet it is not the ground upon which I, at present, place the necessity of a constant progressive improvement in virtue. I rather wish to lay down upon the subject this proposition; namely, that continual improvement is essential in the Christian character, as an evidence of its sincerity; that, if what we have hitherto done in religion has been done from truly religious motives, we shall necessarily *go on;* that, if our religion be real, it cannot stop. There is no standing still: it is not compatible with the nature of the subject: if the principles which actuated us, be principles of godliness, they must continue to actuate us; and, under this continued stimulus and influence, we must necessarily grow better and better. If this effect do not take place, the conclusion is, that our principles are weak, or hollow, or unsound. Unless we find ourselves grow better, we are not right. For example, if our transgressions do not become fewer and fewer, it is to be feared, that we have left off striving against sin, and then we are not sincere.'

The sermons on *the Efficacy of the Death of Christ* are not so well argued as most of the discourses in the collection; and we apprehend that the preacher was not quite satisfied with this part of his labours, since one of the series was missing in the packet of them, which perhaps he had withdrawn with the intention of replacing it by another that might please him better. We do not think with him, (see Sermon 26.) that *the body of this death*, Rom. vii. 24, relates to the second death; nor that in the text to Sermon 31, the words *lose his own soul*, Matt. xvi. 26, refer to the punishment of hell; nor that his terrific representation at p. 561 of the future miseries of the wicked is correct: but for the most part we have no objection to his doctrine, which is eminently practical, and warranted by scripture.

It is the endeavour of the preacher, in the sermon No. 32, intitled *Preservation and Recovery from Sin*, to aid us by some plain rules in *denying* ungodliness, (text Titus ii. 11, 12,) as well as in living righteously and godlily. The last sermon, on *the General Resurrection*, is equally pointed with the rest; as the conclusion will prove:

'They that have done good, shall come again unto the Resurrection of life. But, alas! I hear you say, What good can I do; my means and my opportunities are too small and straightened to think of doing good. You do not sufficiently reflect, what doing good is. You are apt to confine the notion of it to giving to others, and giv-

ing liberally. This, no doubt, is right and meritorious: but it is certainly not in every man's power; comparatively speaking, it is indeed, in the power of very few. But doing good is of a much more general nature; and is in a greater or less degree practicable by all. For, whenever we make one human creature happier, or better than he would have been without our help, then we do good. And when we do this from a proper motive, that is with a sense and a desire of pleasing God by doing it, then we do good in the true sense of the text, and of God's gracious promise. Now let every one, in particular, reflect, whether, in this sense, he has not some good in his power: some within his own doors, to his family, his children, his kindred; by his labour, his authority, his example, by bringing them up, and keeping them in the way of passing their lives honestly, and quietly, and usefully. What good more important, more practicable than this is? Again, something may be done beyond our own household: by acts of tenderness and kindness, of help and compassion to our neighbours. Not a particle of this will be lost. It is all set down in the book of life; and happy are they, who have much there! And again, if any of us be really sorry, that we have not so much in our power, as we would desire, let us remember this short rule, that since we can do little good, to take care that we do no harm. Let us shew our sincerity by our innocence: that, at least, is always in our power.

'Finally, let us reflect, that in the habitations of life are many mansions; rewards of various orders and degrees, proportioned to our various degrees of virtue and exertion here. "He that soweth plenteously, shall reap plenteously." We can never do too much; never be too earnest in doing good; because every good action here will, we are certain, be an addition of happiness hereafter; will advance us to a better condition in the life to come, whatever be our lot or success in this. God will not fail of his promise. He hath commissioned his beloved Son to tell us, that they that have done good shall enter into the resurrection of life. Let us humbly and thankfully accept his gracious offer. We have but one business in this world. It is to strive to make us worthy of a better. Whatever this trial may cost us: how long, how earnestly, how patiently soever, through whatever difficulties, by whatever toils we endeavour to obey and please our Maker, we are supported in them by this solid and never ceasing consolation, "that our labour is not in vain in the Lord."

We have not distinctly specified every discourse: but we have transcribed enough from this volume to shew that the respectable and lamented preacher aimed not at fame but usefulness, and thought not of pleasing but of improving his fellow-creatures.

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ART. VIII. *An Inquiry into the State of National Subsistence, as connected with the Progress of Wealth and Population.* By W. T. Comber. 8vo. pp. 382. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

THIS book may be divided into two parts, one containing the history of our corn-laws, and an account of those regulations which are at present in force, while the other communicates the author's ideas on the theory of subsistence. We shall bestow our principal attention on the former part, because it is by much the better of the two; Mr. Comber, although not unacquainted with the doctrines of political economy, having by no means attained that intimate knowlege of them, nor that facility and promptitude in their application, which are indispensable preliminaries to the accuracy of new propositions.

After an introduction, more calculated to shew the writer's erudition than to give a clear outline of his work, we are presented, in the first chapter, with an account of the state of agriculture in the time of the Britons and Anglo-Saxons. In this part also, as indeed throughout the whole volume, Mr. Comber's solicitude to display the extent of his reading may be remarked: but our objections to this disposition, while it is confined to narrative and description, are less serious than when it is permitted to darken and entangle the path of science by complex and visionary theories. Among the Saxons, Mr. C. informs us, four distinct tenures of land subsisted: *allodial*, which implied the property of an *odalsman*, or independent nobleman; *thane-land*, meaning land granted by the King to his immediate dependants; *folkland*, by which we are to understand a provision for such of the people as were dependent neither on the King nor on the nobility; and *bockland*, or *bookland*, denoting a tenure by deed or instrument in writing, which in those rude ages was extremely rare. The contempt for laborious occupations which was entertained by the Saxons, in common with other uncivilized nations, joined to the natural fickleness of the climate, occasioned the frequent recurrence of famines, and produced the greatest miseries; which were aggravated by the intestine wars of the Heptarchy, and by the subsequent struggles with the Danes. The influence of the Christian religion was favourable indeed to industry, but it was accompanied by heavy demands on the national produce, for the erection of churches and monasteries; and at the close of the reign of Edward the Confessor, it was computed that one third of the lands of the kingdom were granted to the endowment of religious foundations.

foundations. It may be safely laid down, as a general remark, that the state of England, in the time of the Saxons, was rather pastoral than arable.

The occupation of England by the Normans produced, in regard to land, all the consequences of absolute conquest. A great part of the estates of the Saxon nobility was confiscated and divided among William's followers, while the native proprietors of inferior rank were glad to secure their possessions by holding them as fiefs of a Norman lord. The allodial thus gave way to the feudal system, and even the church-lands were no longer exempt from the obligation of military service. It is important to remark that, in the distribution of the estates of the feudal lords, the proportion of land held by the vassals on their own account was small; the greater part of the lordship being retained by the owner, and cultivated by his servants or dependants for his own use. No system could be less favourable to agricultural improvement than the occupancy of such ignorant and restless masters; and accordingly the occurrence of famine was a calamity as frequent after the Conquest as before. Money also was very scarce, and the rate of interest consequently very high; the principal causes of which were the exactions of the Court of Rome, the rage for crusading, and a general taste among the nobles for foreign luxuries,—the cloths of Flanders, the wines of France, and the ornamental fabrics of the East.

In this unsettled state of society, the prices of corn, as might naturally be expected, were very fluctuating. One year, we are told, wheat bore a price equivalent to nine shillings of our present money per quarter; and a year or two afterward, five times as much. Before we draw conclusions, however, from these statements, we should attend to two things; first, that these reports are generally local, and by no means descriptive of the currency of prices throughout the country; and secondly, that wheat was consumed by the great only, the mass of the people being supported on a coarser diet. The price of wheat, therefore, was in those days by no means so accurate an index of the general state of provisions as it is in the present. Mr. Comber also very justly attributes a great part of the fluctuations in the price of wheat to the absurd laws against forestalling, regrating, and engrossing, which precluded the existence of corn-merchants, and prevented the abundance of one year from being made subservient to the alleviation of the scarcity of the next.

It was in 1394, in the reign of Richard II., that the exportation of grain to all parts was first permitted by Act of

of Parliament; subject, however, to certain duties, and liable to restraint by the King in Council, whenever high prices at home might render that measure necessary. Soon after this time, Leadenhall was built as a public granary for London.—In 1437, exportation was allowed whenever the quarter of wheat did not exceed a price corresponding to 13s. 4d. of our present money; and in 1463 we meet with an indication of the vigilant attention of the landholders to their own interest; when, having made complaints of the losses sustained by the importation of foreign grain, they obtained an act prohibiting such importation whenever wheat was below 11s. of our present money. This appears to have been the first restriction on import. The exportation of wool to the Continent, particularly to the manufacturing country of Flanders, had been considerable since the 13th century; and towards the end of the 15th, the English government became apprehensive that the frequent conversion of corn-land into sheep-walks might injure the prosperity of the kingdom. Acts for the maintenance of tillage, and the restriction of pasturage, were accordingly passed in 1488, 1515, 1534, 1552, 1562, and 1597; regulations which did not, probably, originate with the landed interest, but resulted from the general impression that the produce of pasture compared with tillage was unsubstantial and precarious. The influence of the landed interest, however, was visible in the acts passed in the reign of Elizabeth, the general scope of which was to permit the exportation of grain whenever prices were reasonable at home. Although nothing can be more equitable than such a permission, yet if we advert to the anxiety of the lower orders to prevent, at all times, the egress of provisions, we shall be satisfied that to obtain that permission required no small degree of exertion on the part of the proprietors of land; clogged even as it was with the payment of a considerable duty to the crown. In the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, the export of wheat was allowed only when the average home-price was at or below 6s. 8d. per quarter: but, as prices rose, the landed interest obtained an extension of the permission, whenever wheat should be at or below 10s. the quarter; and finally, in the end of her reign, whenever it should be at or below 20s. This rapid advance of prices, during the time of Elizabeth, is equalled in no period of our history except the present; and the enhancement continued during a part of the next century: since, in the reign of James Ist, we find exportation permitted whenever our own prices should not exceed an average, first of 26s. 8d. per quarter, and subsequently of 32s. In the period, therefore, of sixty years, the prices of wheat

wheat appear to have quadrupled; and this extraordinary rise of prices, or, in other words, this depreciation of money, is ascribed by Dr. Smith to the influx of the precious metals from America. During the period mentioned, the exportation seems to have been considerable, and must have been productive of a large revenue, since a duty of 2s. per quarter was payable on wheat, and 16d. on all other grain. It was at this epoch that the city of London built granaries for corn and coals in Bridewell.

In the history of our corn-laws, it is important to keep in mind that the most powerful body in our Parliament have always been land-holders, or persons interested in raising the prices of corn. The acts passed with this view have not originated with the Crown, which has no motive for enhancing prices; and still less with the people, who, being the consumers, have every motive for lowering them. They have proceeded, therefore, exclusively from Parliament; and accordingly, during those intervals of the 17th century in which the power of Parliament was suspended, no new regulations of the corn-market took place. This remark applies to three several periods, the reign of Charles I., the Protectorate, and the reign of James II.: but no sooner did Parliament resume its authority at the Restoration, as well as at the Revolution, than each epoch was marked by a statute in favour of the land-holders. The act passed at the Restoration lowered the export-duty on wheat from 2s. to 1s. per quarter; and this reduction was perfectly fair: but a different sentence must be passed on another part of the Act, namely, that which discouraged the importation of foreign grain; a discouragement which was aggravated by subsequent Acts of Parliament under Charles II. though it was not till the Revolution that the landed interest made an arbitrary use of their parliamentary preponderance. Till that time, they had gone no farther than to secure to themselves the whole supply of the home-market; but the Act of 1688 gave them, in addition, a large bounty for supplying foreigners. It provided that, whenever wheat was at or under 48s., a bounty of 5s. per quarter should be paid on export; a correspondent bounty was allowed on the export of other British grain; and the restrictions on the import of foreign corn were so heavy as to amount to a prohibition.

Such was the law of the land during the greater part of a century, namely from 1688 to 1773. Our exportations, as we may naturally conclude, were large; and the sums paid for bounty were so great as to form a heavy addition to the public burdens:—an addition not expended for any purpose of national benefit, but accompanied by the strange result of enabling

enabling foreigners to buy our corn cheaper than we bought it ourselves. The early part of the present reign, however, being marked by scarcity and high prices, it was found necessary to resort to temporary suspensions of this Act, as well as to abrogate the absurd laws against middle-men; and at last, in 1773, the continued pressure of scarcity, the influence of Dr. Smith's opinion, and the patriotic exertions of Mr. Burke, led to the memorable repeal of the prohibition on foreign grain. Yet this repeal could not be effected in the absolute manner which those enlightened men desired, and sound policy dictated, because the landed interest were too powerful to make a total surrender of a system which they conceived (although very erroneously) to be conducive to the increase of their rents: but the public distress was considerably mitigated, and a visible approximation was made to the adoption of a wiser policy. The provisions of this Act were that foreign corn might be imported, at a trifling duty, whenever British wheat was so high as 48s; and that a bounty should not be allowed on the export of British corn, unless the home-price was as low as 44s. The Act was founded on the assumption that the price of 48s. was fair both for the grower and the consumer; and its object was to prevent deviation from that price, by calling in a foreign supply when our markets were likely to rise, and continuing to give a premium for export when they were likely to fall. Such has been the policy of our corn-laws ever since 1773. They have subsequently undergone two great alterations, in regard to the scale of prices: but these alterations have proceeded from the depreciation of money, and the principle of the law has remained unvaried. In 1791 the value of money was considerably lower than in 1773, and the importation of foreign wheat was discouraged, unless our home price should be as high as 54s.; and in 1804, a still farther depreciation of money having taken place, the importation of foreign corn was discouraged unless our own should be as high as 66s. This continues to be the law at present; and the general inference to be drawn from it, when connected with the regulations of bounty on export, is that, as far as it depends on Acts of Parliament, our average price of wheat shall not be higher than 66s. nor lower than 53s.

Having thus laid before our readers, partly from our own sources of information, and partly from Mr. Comber's work, a narrative of our corn-laws, the next task which we proposed to ourselves was an analysis of Mr. C.'s speculations: but they are so much blended with other matter, and expressed with such an unfortunate prolixity, that we are obliged to desist from the

attempt of presenting them in a connected view, and forced to confine our observations to detached points. In these we are disposed partly to accord with and partly to dissent from him. To the former class, we refer his remark (p. 112) 'that the small occupancies existing under the feudal system were unfavourable to the advancement of agricultural skill, and were accompanied by a want of economy in the essentials both of animal and human labour:' as well as his argument (page 148), that the frequent scarcities, during the prevalence of the bounty on export, shew the fallacy of the favourite plea of the landed interest, that 'to give a bounty on export is the best means of creating a regular superabundance of our home growth.' We farther agree with him (page 175) in condemning the warehouse duty of 2s. 6d. on foreign wheat imposed in 1791, and in lamenting (page 210) that our system of corn-laws 'should have so direct a tendency to create fluctuation and irregularity of price.' He exemplifies this observation very aptly by the state of the London market in 1801. Between the end of May and the middle of June of that year, wheat fell from 156s. to 100s; in July, it rose again to 155s.; and in the end of August, it fell to 74s. He maintains very justly (page 258), that 'to call the warehousing of foreign corn a discouragement to our own growth, is to infer that agriculture cannot be maintained without the occasional occurrence of scarcity and enormous prices;' and he gives us salutary advice in recommending (page 321) the 'partial introduction of the use of other grain for bread in the place of wheat.' His remark also (page 216), that 'the enormous enchancement in the price of our corn, as well as other commodities, has been caused by our taxes,' is not the less deserving of approbation for being obvious; since a great part of the community ascribes this enhancement to the avarice of our landholders, and another part attributes it, with equal gravity, to an increase of national wealth.

After this enumeration in Mr. Comber's favour, and our testimony to the evident disinterestedness of his views, although writing on a subject connected with his own pursuits, we must in other respects pass a very different sentence on his book. Professing to give a history of our corn-laws only, he deviates perpetually into general reasonings on the history of our whole commerce: though an admirer of Dr. Smith, he is so little impressed with the extent of that philosopher's conclusions as to dwell seriously on the mercantile notion of a balance of trade, and to consider a decline in the rate of interest as no public advantage; and, after having cautioned us, in his preface, to distrust theories and look to facts, he affords us in his own work an example of a writer

being led away, in almost every page, from the obvious track of narrative into the devious field of speculation. Such authors ought never to forget that, while speculation is to the well-stored mind the source of important discoveries, it is a pathless and barren waste to those whose knowlege is confined, and whose principles are not ascertained. Instead of yielding to a propensity to draw hasty conclusions of their own, let them meditate attentively the opinions of those who have preceded them; and instead of vainly grasping at early fame, let them be assured that the only way of obtaining reputation is to avoid coming before the public till their ideas are digested and matured. Dr. Smith's works are both the fountain of knowlege in political economy, and an example of that careful execution which is indispensable to success.

Faulty as Mr. Comber's volume is, however, we would not be understood to discourage his future compositions. He has given evidence, both of liberality in design and of industry in execution; and his Appendix contains a very useful abstract of our Acts of Parliament relative to the rate of interest, the price of labour, the export of grain, the encouragement of tillage, the price of provisions, forestallers, aliens, &c. We recommend its statements to the attention of many readers whom we could not advise to attempt the perusal of Mr. Comber's disquisitions; and the thanks of literary men are due to the writer who presents to them, in a convenient shape, that official information which it is so tedious to seek in the statute-book, or in the voluminous reports of Parliamentary Committees.

We select the following passage as a favourable specimen of Mr. Comber's reasoning:

'The complaints of the farmers of the inadequacy of the prices in 1803 and 1804, were such as to occasion a committee of the House of Commons to be appointed to take the subject into consideration, and to examine into the existing laws respecting the commerce of grain. The committee reported, "that the high prices had occasioned large tracts of waste land to be brought into cultivation, which, combined with the two last productive seasons, had depressed the value of grain so much as it was feared would greatly tend to the discouragement of agriculture; unless maintained by the support of parliament." The interpretation of this enigmatical report appears to be, that the prices which had already become depressed by an extension of growth at home, might become so much further depressed by the competition of the foreign grower, if it were not prevented, as to discourage the production of grain. This is further explained by the committee, where they observe, "that when the regulations were most favourable to the growers, the export of corn for more than sixty years together had produced annually 700,000l. to the nation. But on the other hand, as the laws bore hard on the grower, impor-

tations had increased, the balance had been turned against the nation, and in the last 13 years had amounted to 30 millions."

'It is quite inconceivable that a committee of the House of Commons, under a grave examination into the causes of an apparent derangement in one of the most important branches of the domestic economy of the state, should adopt the language of a few superficial declaimers. It is always better to assign no reasons than such as are untenable. This is a very partial and uncandid statement of the account. In estimating the gain of the nation from the export of corn, they take credit for the whole proceeds of the corn sold, without any deductions whatever for rent of land, interest of money, or wages of labour, and without deducting, as they certainly ought, the sums paid by government for bounty to the grower; and in estimating the loss from importation, they debit the nation with the whole cost of the grain, without making any allowance for the circumstances by which the price was so greatly raised beyond the usual rate, and the total amount so considerably augmented, and without taking credit for the rent of land, interest of money, or wages of labour, which would have been required for raising it at home. But the fact was, that we could not produce it at home, and therefore the importation became more a matter of necessity than choice, and certainly did not arise from the regulations being unfavourable to the grower; but as far it was at all occasioned by those regulations, arose from the injudicious attempts to promote his interest.

'After the nation had so recently experienced the inconveniencies of scarcity, which in the estimation of every impartial man, can only be attributed to the unfavourableness of the seasons, combined with the want of encouragements to forming stores either of English or foreign wheat; we cannot but be surprized at the impatience of the nation under the first effects of the re-action of these causes. The cry of the agriculture of the country being endangered, is one of those stale tricks by which the interested impose upon the ignorant, or by which the powerful choose to colour their aggressions. An increase of tillage in consequence of high prices, was a natural effect of the return of the pendulum, and would have gradually corrected itself; to suppose that it should necessarily verge again to an opposite extreme implies that there exists no principle by which the production of grain will regulate itself to the demand. At all events, if the securing a certain price to the farmer was found necessary for this purpose, it would have been more candid and dignified to have stated this, than to have recurred to the exploded errors of the bounty system, or to the false statement of an ideal balance.

'If the securing a higher price had become necessary, from any change in the circumstances of the society, either to afford the farmer a fair living profit, or even to enable the land-owner to maintain his rank in the society, the liberality of the nation would not have withheld its sanction to the measures for that purpose. It might, however, probably not have recurred to such as had already been found inconsistent with that regularity of supply and security against want, which the interests of every class in the society imperiously call for.'

No part of Mr. Comber's book is less satisfactory than that in which he offers suggestions for amending our system relative to the import of foreign corn. These remarks occur in pages 248, 249, and 251; and they are really so little suited to the comprehensive views which ought to characterize an advocate for reform, that we decline to quote them. Our own opinion points to complete liberty, as well in the import as the export of all grain; and we recognize no reason for difference of regulation in regard to British and foreign grain. This opinion is not founded on the assumption that, because the land-holders are wealthy, they ought to be excluded from an indemnity for the taxes which they pay, but on a deliberate conviction that this state of perfect freedom is equally conducive to the prosperity of the landed interest and to that of the public at large. The fundamental ground of this conviction is the fact that the price of food regulates the price of other things. An increase in the *money*-rent of land is speedily followed by a correspondent increase in the price of other commodities; so that the addition to the land-holder is merely nominal, it being requisite that the amount of his expenditure should be proportionally augmented. An increase in the *real* value of his rent is to be found only in the general prosperity of the country, and the consequent multiplication of those articles which he purchases with his rent: but the ratio of this prosperity is greatly lessened by any measure which enhances food, and consequently the price of labour. Our power of competition with foreign countries is thus greatly diminished; a severe national loss is sustained; and of this loss, the land-holders, who possess so large a share of the public property, are certain of suffering their full proportion. The value of their incomes is lessened according as the abundance of those commodities, for which income is exchangeable, undergoes diminution; or, in other words, according as the general prosperity of the country is impaired.

In contradiction to the vulgar prejudice that the corn-dealers enter into combinations for enhancing grain, Mr. Comber very justly remarks that they are often buyers as well as sellers, and that in no class of merchants does a greater variety of opinions exist. It is estimated (page 197.) that the usual stock of English wheat in the kingdom, previously to the coming in of a new crop, is equal only to three months' consumption; and that one half of it, at least, is destined for seed. The prices of corn in the exporting countries, in Poland as well as America, are regulated, in dear seasons, by those of England; and it is a curious fact that, a century ago, in consequence of the cattle feeding on wastes and commons, instead of good pastures, the lambs, sheep, and calves weighed little more than a third, and

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the oxen considerably less than half, of what they weigh at present.

We shall conclude by quoting, from Mr. Comber's Appendix, a statement of the distribution of land throughout England and Wales:

"The Proportion of land cultivated for different purposes in England and Wales.

	Acres.
Wheat	3,160,000
Barley and rye	861,000
Oats and beans	2,872,000
Clover, rye, grass, &c.	1,149,000
Roots and cabbage cultivated by the plough	1,150,000
Fallow	2,297 000
Hop grounds	36,000
Nursery grounds	9,000
Fruit and kitchen gardens cultivated by the spade	41,000
Pleasure grounds	16,000
Land depastured by cattle	17,479,000
Hedge-rows, copses, and woods	1,641.000
Ways, water, &c.	1,316,000
	32,027,000
Commons and waste lands	6,473,000
Total acres in England and Wales	38,500,000'

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ART. IX. *A Narrative of the Campaign of the British Army in Spain,* commanded by his Excellency Lieutenant-General Sir John Moore, K. B. &c. &c. Authenticated by official Papers and original Letters. By James Moore, Esq. 4to. pp. 324. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1809.

IMPORTANT state-measures not only attract general notice, but should always be open to the most ample investigation; and the conduct of any individual, who has acted a prominent part in the contrivance or in the execution of them, should be equally subject to the scrutiny of the community, whose welfare they involved. Where merit has been displayed, the result of this examination ought to be, and always would be, adequate reward: if failure be proved, the sentence of the public should be retributive in proportion to the extent of the incapacity, the negligence, or the treachery which has been manifested. These observations are common-place; and it seems as if such a system would naturally and constantly prevail: but experience shews that sometimes the world is kept so far in ignorance of the secret springs and finer movements of the political ma-

chine, that neither the praise nor the blame which has been deserved has been judiciously apportioned; and we still more frequently perceive that it is difficult, if not impossible, to fix and to instruct the public mind respecting national affairs, sufficiently to form a correct judgment, to derive wisdom from past experience, to punish the minister who has erred, and to deter him or his successor from future trifling with the welfare of empires. From the want of this requisite watchfulness and *dictation*, the rulers of a country often persist in a mistaken line of conduct, after costly experiments have shewn its fallacy; and that country is made unjust to the merits or prodigal in the gratification of their agents, at the instigations of interest, of partiality, or of dislike.

On all accounts, therefore, we are glad when the operation of any of these causes puts the public in possession of authentic and more complete documents, in relation to great political events, than would otherwise perhaps have reached them. In the case which at present excites our attention, the hard lot of a very gallant soldier has produced a development of this kind; and we are told by his brother, from whom the volume before us proceeds, that

'Although the King and the British Nation have proclaimed their admiration of Sir John Moore as loudly as of any of the most distinguished military characters that preceded him: yet, like the Great and Good of every age, he has not escaped the insinuations of Envy, even after terminating an illustrious career by a most glorious death. The effects of Calumny against so noble a character can be of no long duration; but during that period the Relatives and Friends suffer, and the uninformed part of the Public remain, in some degree, in suspence. It is, therefore, incumbent on a Brother by unfolding the truth to prove to all, that the pretended facts upon which the malignant representations were founded, are utterly false'

We had not the honour of knowing, nor of being in any way connected with, Sir John Moore: but in common with the world we know that he had been engaged in a variety of actions, in which his frequent wounds and the constant praises of his superiors attested his gallantry, his enterprize, and his judgment; and in the General Orders of His Royal Highness the late Commander in Chief, after the fall of this lamented officer, we have a tribute to his high merits, the just sentiments and glowing terms of which will ever be as honourable to the giver as to the object of them. Towards the close of these orders, it is remarked:

"The life of Sir John Moore was spent among the troops.

"During the season of repose, his time was devoted to the care and instruction of the Officer and Soldier; in war, he courted service

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in every quarter of the globe. Regardless of personal considerations, he esteemed that to which his Country called him the post of honour, and by his undaunted spirit, and unconquerable perseverance, he pointed the way to victory.

" His Country, the object of his latest solicitude, will rear a Monument to his lamented memory ; and the Commander in Chief feels he is paying the best tribute to his fame by thus holding him forth as an example to the Army."

These feelings, however, have not been altogether ratified and participated by the Government and the nation: but by both have occasional intimations been given, that Sir John Moore's decision of abandoning the Spanish cause was unwelcome at home, and that his retreat of the British Army was inglorious abroad. Another attempt has been made to effect that object which the deceased commander relinquished as hopeless; and the panegyrics of His Majesty, personally *, together with the distinctions which spring from him as the fountain, but which testify also the participation of his ministers, are showered on the officer whose efforts have now been brilliantly but vainly directed to this end: an officer gallant and able (we are willing to grant) like Sir John Moore, but whose present career in the same arena gives bleeding testimony to the correctness of that General's sentiments, while it meets with such different acknowlegement.

This case, then, is interesting, and deserving of investigation. as far as the reputation of Sir John Moore is concerned: but it is highly important as involving the question of the propriety of the operations of a British Army in Spain: a system in which the administration of this country has persevered since the failure of the campaign of 1808, and which, it is but too evident, will be marked by similar diappointment in the events of 1809. Under all these impressions, we may be allowed to dwell at some length on the documents provided in the volume before us; which is composed from a Journal of proceedings constantly kept by Sir John Moore, authenticated by original papers, official records, and the reports of Staff Officers. It contains the whole correspondence with Mr. Frere, 'except two *useless* letters from him which were never received by the General;' and all Sir J. M.'s dispatches to the Secretary of State, with very few omissions, and such as are 'quite immaterial to the public;' together with his correspondence with Spanish Officers, civil and military, Lieutenant-Generals Sir David Baird and Hope, Major-Generals Lord Wm. Bentinck and Leith, &c. &c.

* The orders concerning Sir John Moore are from the Commander in Chief in his name only: but those which relate to Sir Arthur Wellesley are from the Commander in Chief in *the King's* name

On the 25th September 1808, a dispatch was written by Lord Castlereagh to Sir John Moore at Lisbon, communicating to him the intelligence of his appointment to the command of an army of 'not less than 30,000 infantry and 5000 cavalry,' to be employed in the North of Spain. Of this force, from 10 to 12,000 men were yet to be sent from England, under Sir David Baird, to be landed at Corunna, but the larger proportion was to be taken by Sir John from the army in Portugal. The dispatch was received by the General on the 6th of October; and after having experienced great difficulties in forwarding the equipment of the troops, particularly from *the inexperience of the Commissariat*, he thus writes on the 27th: 'Every thing is now clear of Lisbon, except two regiments, which march to-morrow and the day following; and I shall myself leave it in a couple of hours.' He had before stated that his intention was to intrust the conduct of the marches to the Generals conducting columns, and to proceed himself direct to Almeida; and he now says:

"I am under the necessity of sending General Hope with the artillery, cavalry, and a corps of infantry, in all about 6,000 men, by the great road leading from Badajos to Madrid, as every information agreed, that no other was fit for the artillery, or could be recommended for the cavalry. This is a great round, and will separate the corps for a time, from the rest of the army: but there is no help for it; the road turns to the left a short distance from Madrid, and leads upon Espinar, from whence it can be directed on Valladolid and Burgos, or whatever other place may be judged hereafter best for the assembling of the army.

"Sir David Baird arrived at Corunna on the 13th instant. I have written to him to march upon Astorga as soon as his corps is equipped. With the infantry which marched from this direct upon Almeida and Ciudad Rodrigo, I shall not advance beyond Salamanca; until the corps under Baird and Hope approach Astorga and Espinar, but shall collect them in Almeida, Ciudad Rodrigo, and Salamanca. This, at least, is my intention at present; and I shall consider myself fortunate if they reach those places before the first rains, which, in general, last six or eight days, and fall so heavy, that, during their continuance, the troops must halt."

Early obstacles were experienced, from a want of *money*, (which was *throughout* the case,) from a difficulty of obtaining provisions, from the badness of roads, and from the ignorance of the Portuguese themselves on this latter point. It was afterward discovered that the representation respecting the roads through the north of Portugal was erroneous; and that the important delay, which subsequently arose in the junction of General Hope with the Commander in Chief, might have been avoided by his column having marched with the rest of the army.

army. As to provisions, 'it was found that the whole army could not be subsisted on the road by Elvas; no magazines having been formed for such a body of troops. When the Spanish Commissary General was consulted on this subject, and when the quantity of meat required by the British army was explained to him, he computed, that were they to be supplied with the rations specified, in three months all the oxen would be consumed, and very few hogs would be left in the country.'

On the general question, moreover, of the abilities and energy of the Spaniards themselves, an unfavourable idea was soon communicated by Lord William Bentinck, who had been residing in Spain on a diplomatic mission. 'In a dispatch about the beginning of October, he observes with a melancholy presage: "I am every moment more and more convinced, that a blind confidence in their own strength, and natural slowness, are the rocks upon which this good ship runs the risk of being wrecked."

An English officer, Captain Whittingham, also writes thus to Lord W. B.:

"Head Quarters, Calahorra, 28th Oct. 1808.

"On the 25th General Castanos left this place for Logrono. We arrived about four in the evening. The army of Castile was drawn up to receive the General. Its strength about 11,000 men. But to form any idea of its composition, it is absolutely necessary to have seen it. It is a compelete mass of miserable peasantry, without clothing, without organization, and with few Officers that deserve the name.

"The General and principal Officers have not the least confidence in their troops; and, what is yet worse, the men have no confidence in themselves.

"This is not an exaggerated picture; it is a true portrait," &c. &c.'

On the 8th of November, Sir John arrived at Almeida, and on the 13th with his advanced guard at Salamanca; and a few hours afterwards he wrote a letter to Lord W. Bentinck at Madrid, in which we find these remarkable passages:

"I have no objection to you, or Mr. Frere, representing the necessity of as many more British troops as you think proper. It is certain, that the agents, which our Government have hitherto employed, have deceived them. For affairs here are by no means in the flourishing state they are represented and believed to be in England; and the sooner the truth is known in England, the better. But you must observe, my Lord, that whatever is critical must now be decided by the troops which are here; the French, I suspect, are ready, and will not wait. I differ only with you in one point;—when you say, the chief and great obstacle and resistance to the French will be afforded by the English Army. If that be so, Spain

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is lost. The English Army, I hope, will do all which can be expected from their numbers; but the safety of Spain depends upon the union of its inhabitants, their enthusiasm in their cause, and in their firm and devoted determination to die, rather than submit to the French; nothing short of this will enable them to resist the formidable attack about to be made upon them. If they will adhere, our aid can be of the greatest use to them; but, if not, we shall soon be out-numbered, were our force quadrupled.

"I am, therefore, much more anxious to see exertion and energy in the Government, and enthusiasm in their Armies, than to have my force augmented. — The moment is a critical one — my own situation is particularly so—I have never seen it otherwise; — but I have pushed into Spain at all hazards; — this was the order of my Government—and it was the will of the people of England. I shall endeavour to do my best, hoping that all the bad that may happen, will not happen; but that with a share of bad, we shall also have a portion of good fortune."

With regard to Mr. Frere, it is observed by the Editor:

'Mr. Frere arrived at Aranjuez at the beginning of November, as Minister Plenipotentiary of Great Britain. He of course superseded Lord William Bentinck and Mr. Stuart; who, from having resided some time in Spain, and from personal qualifications, had got acquainted with many of the leading men, and had acquired a clear insight into the state of affairs.

'Mr. Frere unfortunately had acquired his notions of Spanish politics in London; and his prepossessions were much too strong to be effaced by the observations of his predecessors, or even to be altered by the most opposing facts.'

Consistently with this representation, so early as Nov. 13, Mr. Frere writes in reply: 'The fixed spirit of resistance which, without calculation of danger or of means, seems to have rooted itself in the minds of the people, appears superior to any reverses.'

Nov. 19, Sir J. Moore again addresses Mr. Frere, and his letter contains these paragraphs:

"The scenes which Colonel Graham describes, in his letters, as passing at the Head Quarters of the Central Army, are deplorable. The imbecility of the Spanish Government exceeds belief. The good-will of the inhabitants, whatever it may be, is of little use whilst there exists no ability to bring it into action.

"I am in communication with no one Spanish army; nor am I acquainted with the intentions of the Spanish Government, or of any of its Generals. Castanos, with whom I was put in correspondence, is deprived of his command at the moment I might have expected to hear from him; and La Romana, with whom I suppose I am now to correspond (for it has not been officially communicated to me) is absent — God knows where. In the mean time the French are within four marches of me, whilst my army is only assembling

sembling : in what numbers they are, I cannot learn. No channels of intelligence have been opened to me ; and I have not been long enough in the country to procure them myself. I state these particulars to you. I wish it were in my power to go myself to Aranjuez, or Madrid, to represent them ; for really if things are to continue in this state, the ruin of the Spanish cause, and the defeat of their armies, is inevitable ; and it will become my duty to consider alone the safety of the British army, and to take steps to withdraw it from a situation, where, without the possibility of doing good, it is exposed to certain defeat."

Similar representations were made to Lord Castlereagh in a dispatch of the 24th ; and it is remarked :

" Your Lordship must be prepared to hear that we have failed ; for situated as we are, success cannot be commanded by any efforts we can make, if the Enemy are prepared to oppose us. I am without a shilling of money to pay the army their subsistence, and I am in daily apprehension that from the want of it, our supplies will be stopped. The 500,000 dollars your Lordship mentions, Sir David Baird considered as sent to him; he detained them, and has nearly expended them. The money which it is possible to procure at Madrid and in other towns of Spain is quite trifling, and it is impossible to describe the embarrassment we are thrown into from the want of this essential article ; nothing but abundance of money, and prompt payments, will compensate, when we begin to move, for the want of experience and ability of our Commissariat."

In a private letter to one of his brothers, dated the 26th, the state of his mind is thus expressed :

" Upon entering Spain I have found affairs in a very different state from what I expected, or from what they are thought to be in England.

" I am in a scrape from which God knows how I am to extricate myself. But, instead of Salamanca this army should have been assembled at Seville. The poor Spaniards deserve a better fate, for they seem a fine people ; but have fallen into hands who have lost them by their apathy and ******.'—

" Pray for me that I may make right decisions : if I make bad ones, it will not be for want of consideration.

" I sleep little, it is now only five in the morning ; and I have concluded, since I got up, this long letter.'

Sir David Baird's sentiments thus appear in a letter to the General in Chief, dated Astorga, Nov. 23 :

" As it could never be intended by the British Government that our army should engage in the defence of this Country unaided and unsupported by any Spanish force, I confess, my dear Sir John, I begin to be at a loss to discover an object at this moment in Spain : it being very evident that the Spaniards are not at this moment in a situation to be capable of assembling a force competent to offer any serious resistance to the progress of the French arms."

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At this period, Sir John also writes in his Journal:

"I see my situation as clearly as any one, that nothing can be worse; for I have no Spanish army to give me the least assistance, only the Marquis Romana is endeavouring to assemble the fugitives from Blake's army at Leon.

"Yet I am determined to form the junction of this army, and to try our fortune. We have no business here as things are; but, being here, it would never do to abandon the Spaniards without a struggle."

A want of necessary and accurate information was severely felt by all the British officers, civil and military; and Mr. Frere (from Aranjuez, Nov. 25.) explicitly states this grievance, which he ascribes 'in part to mistaken notions of secrecy and mystery,' in part to 'a jealousy of Great Britain,' and 'most of all to the confusion of their own system of intelligence, or more properly speaking, want of system.'—Blake's army had now been dispersed, and the French were threatening Madrid.

The several columns of British troops not having yet assembled together, Sir John writes again on the 27th Nov. to Mr. Frere; repeating his sentiments on the cheerless prospect of affairs, and observing: "This is a state of things quite different from that conceived by the British Government, when they determined to send troops to the assistance of Spain."

"It becomes, therefore, a question, whether the British Army should remain to be attacked in its turn, or retire from a country where the contest, from whatever circumstances, has become unequal.

"I wish to throw no responsibility off myself, which properly belongs to me.

"The question is not purely a military one. It belongs at least as much to you, as to me, to decide upon it. Your communications with the Spanish Government, and the opportunities you have had of judging of the general state of the Country, enable you to form as just an estimate of the resistance that is likely to be offered.

"You are, perhaps, better acquainted with the views of the British Cabinet; and the question is. What would that Cabinet direct, were they upon the spot to determine? It is of much importance that this should be thoroughly considered; it is comparatively of very little, on whom shall rest the greatest share of responsibility. I am willing to take the whole, or a part; but I am very anxious to know your opinion.

"The movements of the French give us little time for discussion."

On the 28th, the General received accounts of the defeat of the Spanish army under Castanos, and consequently decided on retreating to the banks of the Tagus. He sent orders to Sir D. Baird to retire on Corunna, and to Gen. Hope to join

him (Sir J. M.) by forced marches, at Salamanca or at Ciudad Rodrigo; remarking,

" After due consideration, I have determined to give the thing up, and to retire. It was my wish to have run great risks to fulfil what I conceive to be the wishes of the people of England, and to give every aid to the Spanish cause; but they have shewn themselves equal to do so little for themselves—their two principal armies having allowed themselves to be thus beaten and dispersed without almost an effort — it would only be sacrificing the Army without doing any good to Spain, to oppose it to such numbers as must now be brought against us: besides, I take for granted, a junction with Baird is out of the question; and, perhaps, with you, problematical; as there must be troops at Burgos, which must now push on to intercept us.'

Here the Editor observes:

' It thus appears that Sir John More took the resolution of retreating, without waiting for Mr. Frere's answer to his letter of the 27th. The defeat of Castanos totally altered the question; and the situation of the Army admitted of no delay. For, if Buonaparte should detach his most advanced corps against the British, General Hope might possibly be intercepted, and Sir David Baird might be hotly pursued, and suffer loss in the embarkation.

' He then assembled the General Officers, and shewed them the intelligence he had received, and the plan he had adopted. He told the Generals, " that he had not called them together to request their counsel, or to induce them to commit themselves by giving any opinion upon the subject. He took the responsibility entirely upon himself; and he only required that they would immediately prepare for carrying it into effect."

' It ought to be mentioned, that the idea of retreating was very generally disapproved of at Salamanca by the Army. The murmurs against it from Officers of rank were heard in every quarter. Even the Staff Officers of Sir John Moore's family lamented it; and, for the first time, doubted the wisdom of his decision. He, however, afterwards learnt, that General Hope agreed with him completely on this, as on all other points.'

December 2, Sir J. Moore was supplied with various information, all tending to represent affairs in a better light, chiefly on the authority of Don Tomas Morla, whose treachery was afterward manifested; together with letters from Mr. Frere, strongly expressing his dissent from the opinion of the General, and urging farther efforts in favour of the common cause. Other encouraging accounts were shortly transmitted; Madrid was stated to be firm in its determination and active in its preparations to resist the enemy; the Junta sent, through the Prince of Castelfranco and Don T. Morla, pressing solicitations to Sir John Moore for his aid; and Mr. Frere again wrote, reiterating his

his persuasions, and renewing his request for a change in Sir John's measures:

"I have no hesitation (he says) in taking upon myself any degree of responsibility which may attach itself to this advice. As I consider the fate of Spain as depending absolutely for the present upon the decision which you may adopt. I say *for the present*, for such is the spirit and character of the country, that, even if abandoned by the British, I should by no means despair of their ultimate success.'

Duly considering all these statements, (which appeared to come from the best authority, but which have since proved to be entirely deceptive*,) and reflecting that his instructions from the British Government commanded him to receive the requisitions and representations of the Spanish Junta and the British Minister at Madrid "with the utmost deference and attention," Sir John Moore rescinded his former determination, and wrote to Sir David Baird to stop his retreat, and return to Astorga.

In the mean time, Mr. Frere sent to Sir John the memorable letter of which Colonel de Charmilly was the bearer, requiring that this gentleman should be examined by a Council of War, *to give* (in fact) *evidence in opposition to the views and resolves of the Commander in Chief.* The General's answer is inserted in the present volume, and deserves the Editor's epithets of 'calm and dignified:'—but we must hasten onward.

On the 4th Inst. General Hope's division effected a junction with the main army. Sir John now took measures for making a movement on Zamora and Toro, that he might approximate himself to the corps of Sir David Baird and the Marquis de la Romana, and that he might threaten the communication between Madrid and France. Madrid had capitulated on the 3d December, but the British General was uninformed of its entire submission.

Dec. 12. a private dispatch to Lord Castlereagh was written, in which we find this paragraph:

"I fear that Mr. Frere is infinitely more sanguine upon the subject of Spain than I am. This is to be regretted, as it renders it more embarrassing for you to come to a decision upon the measure to be pursued. I have seen no ability with the Spanish Government, but much the reverse: none has been displayed by their officers in the command of the armies; no one officer has yet a chief direction of the military branch; the armies have shewn no resolution, the people no enthusiasm, nor no daring spirit; and that which has not been shewn

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* Morla and his associates were actually negociating for the surrender of Madrid, when they wrote in the name of the Junta to the British General, urging his continued co-operation.

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hitherto, I know not why it should be expected to be displayed hereafter. I feel as if the British was the only efficient force in Spain. Your Lordship will consider with what view it was originally sent; whether in aid of an enthusiastic brave people, capable of fighting their own battles, or to contend alone with France, and retrieve the affairs of a beaten disorganized nation. We have had now some proof of the efforts of which Spain is capable; and we can judge by the resistance they have made, whether they have fought with that spirit and obstinacy of a people ardent for the independence of their country. It is certainly right for your Lordship to consider well these matters, that you may be able to estimate justly the aid which is to be expected in this struggle from the Spanish nation, and decide to what amount the British Army should be reinforced, or, if not reinforced, what measures it should follow. The French force in Spain may fairly be set down at 80,000 men*, besides what is in Catalonia; the British at 27 or 28,000, including the regiments coming from Portugal. The French expect considerable reinforcements. The armies which the Spaniards had formed have been beaten and dispersed, and are again collecting. This, my Lord, is, I believe, the true statement; and I leave your Lordship to throw into the scale what portion of enthusiasm, resolution, and ability, you think we have a right to expect from the specimen already given."

On the 14th, the head quarters were at Alaejos, and on the 15th at Toro. On the 20th, Sir J. M. reached Majorga, and was joined by Sir David Baird.

'The British army were now united; and, independent of some small detachments left to keep up the communications, it amounted to 23,000 infantry, and 2000 two or three hundred cavalry. The Head Quarters were at Majorga, but the cavalry and horse-artillery were advanced to Monastero Melgar Abaxo, within three leagues of Sahagun; where it was understood that near 700 of the Enemy's cavalry were posted.'

The Head quarters were established at Sahagun on the 21st. All information, on which reliance could be placed, still displayed the conduct of the Spanish Juntas, and the situation of their troops, in the most discouraging light: but Sir John now determined on making an attack on the enemy, under Marshal Soult, at Saldana, and concerted measures with the Marquis Romana for that purpose. Writing to Mr. Frere on the 23d, he concludes by observing,

"The movement I am making is of the most dangerous kind. I not only risk to be surrounded every moment by superior forces, but to have my communication intercepted with the Galicias. I

'* Sir J. Moore's intelligence, particularly that obtained through the Spanish Government, was often imperfect. Instead of 80,000, he should have said 150,000.'

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wish it to be apparent to the whole world, as it is to every individual of the army, that we have done every thing in our power in support of the Spanish cause; and that we do not abandon it, until long after the Spaniards had abandoned us."

In the course of this day, however, 'messenger after messenger brought unpleasant reports;' information was received that the enemy was advancing from Madrid; and Sir John Moore 'perceived that his movement and design were discovered by Bonaparte, who was now marching a superior force against him. This was what he had all along expected, and was prepared for.—The forward march of the troops was instantly countermanded.' The General also directly wrote to Romana, and thus states his intentions:

"Your Excellency knows my object, in marching in this direction, was to endeavour to free you from a troublesome neighbour, and to strike a blow at a corps of the Enemy, whilst it was still imagined that the British troops had retreated into Portugal I was aware of the risk I ran, if I should be discovered, and the Enemy push on a corps between me and my communication.

"My movement has, in some degree, answered its object, as it has drawn the Enemy from other projects, and will give the South more time to prepare. With such a force as mine, I can pretend to do no more. It would only be losing this army to Spain and to England, to persevere in my march on Soult; who, if posted strongly, might wait, or, if not, would retire and draw me on until the corps from Madrid got behind me: in short, single-handed, I cannot pretend to contend with the superior numbers the French can bring against me.

"I received your Excellency's letter at six, and the troops were to have marched from this to Carrion at eight this evening. I countermanded them, and shall take immediate measures for retiring on Astorga. There I shall stand; as my retreat thence, if necessary, will be secure. I shall be in the way to receive the supplies and the reinforcements which I expect from England. At the worst, I can maintain myself, and, with your Excellency's aid, defend the Galicias, and give time for the formation of the armies of the South, and that which you command to be prepared, when a joint effort may be made, which can alone be efficacious. It is playing the Enemy's game to draw him to attack our armies in rotation."

Here the Editor interposes some additional remarks and information:

'It is now requisite to point out the plan which was adopted by Buonaparte. The particulars were disclosed by his movements; but exact information has also been obtained through Major Napier of the 50th regiment. This Officer at the battle of Corunna was stabbed in the body by a bayonet, and wounded in the head by a sword, yet he defended his life till quarter was promised him. When a prisoner he was treated most handsomely by the Duke of Dalmatia.

Dalmatia (Soult). He dined with Marshal Ney frequently, who as well as General La Borde, the Chief of l'Etat Major, and other officers of rank, frankly told him the design and sentiments of the Emperor. When Buonaparte received intelligence that the British were moving to the Duero, he said, "Moore is the only General now fit to contend with me; I shall advance against him in person."

'Orders were then sent to the Duke of Dalamatia to give way, if attacked, and to decoy the British to Burgos, or as far Eastward as possible; and at the same time to push on a corps towards Leon, on their left flank. And should they attempt to retreat, he was ordered to impede this by every means in his power. The corps on the road to Badajos was stopt, and ordered to proceed towards Salamanca; while he himself moved rapidly with all the disposable force at Madrid, and the Escurial, directly to Benavente. Neither Buonaparte nor any of his Generals had the least doubt of surrounding the British with between 60 and 70,000 men before they could reach Galicia.

'Sir John Moore, as appears both by his letters and his conduct, saw clearly the whole of this plan: he had prepared for the danger; calculated the time; and has acquired the glory of being the first General who has frustrated Buonaparte.'

Here is the material point in the history of this unfortunate campaign. The General now seriously determined on withdrawing, and commenced measures for effecting that retreat which ended in the embarkation at Corunna; which has been praised by some as conducted with the most eminent skill, firmness, and perseverance; and which has been censured by others as injudicious and unwarrantably severe in its rapidity. On the melancholy effects of it, as sustained by the troops while on march, we shall not dwell in our abstracted narrative: but it is essential to state the principle on which it was directed, and the position of the enemy by which it was induced. The Editor represents that

'The Duke of Dalmatia received strong reinforcements from the 22nd to the 24th; so that his army alone was much superior to the British. It was posted behind the river Carrion, between Carrion and Saldana.

'The Duke of Abrantes had advanced from Burgos to Palentia, and threatened the right flank of the British.

'Buonaparte pushed on the corps at the Escurial, and marched from Madrid on the 18th in person, with an army consisting of 32,000 infantry and 8000 cavalry. The advanced guard of this cavalry passed through Tordesillas on the 24th; the same day the van of the British left Sahagun; and both moved to the same point —Benavente.

'There was another corps on the road to Badajos commanded by the Duke of Dantzic; this had advanced to Talavera de la Reina; and had pushed on as far as Arzo-Bispo, in pursuit of the Spanish General Galuzo. This was likewise counter-marched, and was di-

rected towards Salamanca. Even the division under the Duke of Trevise which was proceeding to Saragossa, was stopt; and the long meditated vengeance against that heroic city was deferred.

'In fine, the whole disposable force of the French army, forming an irregular crescent, was marching in radii with rapid steps to environ the British. To accomplish this favourite object, Buonaparte stopt his victorious career to the South, where there was nothing capable of resisting him'—

'Sir John Moore's first object was to pass the river Elsar without interruption. There are three routes across this river: the first is by Mansilla, where there is a good bridge; the second is by Valencia where there was only a ferry; and the third is by Castro Gonsalo, where there is also a bridge; this last road leads to Benavente. It was impossible to go by Mansilla, as the Marquis of Romana's troops were there, and the country was completely exhausted by them. There were great objections to the whole army attempting the passage by the ferry at Valencia: for the intelligence received was, that the river was rapidly increasing, so that the ford would probably be too deep, and the boats were few. These circumstances would render the passage of the whole army very tedious at this point. And besides, an adequate supply of food could not be found; nor could covering, which was necessary at this season, be had for the whole army on one route.

'It was, however, quite requisite to secure Valencia to stop the Enemy. Sir David Baird was, therefore, directed to take that route; and it was resolved that the rest of the army should proceed by Castro Gonsalo.

'By this division of the army also the magazines and stores, which were deposited at Benavente and Zamora, were effectually covered.'

These movements were effected according to the General's orders, and on the 27th. his head quarters were established at Benavente. On the 29th, the British dragoons had a skirmish with some French cavalry under General Lefebvre, who was taken; and from the prisoners it was learnt that Bonaparte slept the preceding night at Villalpando, *only four leagues from Benavente.*—To prevent being turned by the enemy, and on account of the scarcity of provisions, the Commander detached General Craufurd with 3000 light troops to Orense, on the road to Vigo; and the rest of the army proceeded to Astorga, where Sir D. Baird's column was again united to it.

'It is known (says the Editor) that Buonaparte had fully expected to have reached Benavente as soon as, or before, the British; and the Duke of Dalmatia hoped, that they would be so much retarded by Buonaparte's attacks, that he might by forced marches through Leon, precede them at Astorga. The little resistance made by the Spaniards at Mansilla, and the immediate submission of Leon, facilitated this plan. Had either been in time, the British would have been surrounded. But Buonaparte was anticipated in both

both his projects; and, while a part of his cavalry was repulsed by Lord Paget, the van of the British Army, under General Fraser, entered and secured Astorga.'

A dispatch of the 31st to Lord Castlereagh thus represents affairs:

"With respect to me, my Lord, and the British troops, it has come to that point which I have long foreseen. Abandoned from the beginning by every thing Spanish, we were equal to nothing by ourselves. From a desire to do what I could, I made the movement against Soult. As a diversion it has answered completely; but, as there is nothing to take advantage of it, I have risked the loss of the army for no purpose. I have no option now but to fall down to the coast as fast as I am able. I found no provision here: the little which has been collected had been consumed by Sir David's corps in their passage; and there is not two days' bread to carry the army to Villa-franca. I have been forced to push on the troops by divisions, without stopping'—'There is no means of carriage: the people run away, the villages are deserted; and I have been obliged to destroy great part of the ammunition and military stores. For the same reason I am obliged to leave the sick. In short, my sole object is to save the army. We must all make forced marches to the coast, from the scarcity of provisions, and to be before the enemy; who, by roads upon our flanks, may otherwise intercept us."

The troops now proceeded to Villa Franca, the French cavalry constantly hanging on their rear, and frequent skirmishes occurring.

'When Buonaparte reached Astorga he was joined by the Duke of Dalmatia. The whole army that was assembled there amounted to near 70,000 men, independently of other corps, which were countermanded from their former destination, though not yet come up. It is natural to imagine that a man so accustomed to succeed in all his plans must have been bitterly disappointed to find that, notwithstanding his exertions, the British were beyond his reach. He here reviewed this immense force; and perceiving, by the masterly arrangements of his enemy, that it was no longer possible to intercept him, he halted to watch the event. Three Marshals of France, with as many divisions, were commanded to follow the British closely, and to destroy them, either before or during their embarkation. And some other corps followed those divisions, to support them.'

At Lugo, Sir John Moore determined to offer battle to the French, the ground being favourable, and he conceiving it to be desirable to fight the enemy there, rather than suffer his troops to be continually harassed on their march: but Marshal Soult seemed not to relish the dispositions which he found made by Sir J. M., and nothing more than skirmishes took place. The retreat of the British was therefore continued to

Corunna; and from this place the General once more addresses Lord Castlereagh, and observes:

"Your Lordship knows that had I followed my own opinion as a military man, I should have retired with the army from Salamanca. The Spanish armies were then beaten; there was no Spanish force to which we could unite; and I was satisfied that no efforts would be made to aid us, or favour the cause in which they were engaged. I was sensible, however, that the apathy and indifference of the Spaniards would never have been believed; that, had the British been withdrawn, the loss of the cause would have been imputed to their retreat; and it was necessary to risk this army to convince the people of England, as well as the rest of Europe, that the Spaniards had neither the power, nor the inclination, to make any efforts for themselves.

"It was for this reason that I marched to Sahagun. As a diversion it succeeded: I brought the whole disposable force of the French against this army, and it has been allowed to follow it, without a single movement being made to favour its retreat."*

We refrain at present from all farther details of this march, of the partial actions that enlivened it, and of the general action at Corunna which terminated the life of the gallant Commander. Our immediate object has been to exhibit the essential movements and determinations made by Sir John Moore, with the reasons and motives by which he was instigated; and we have brought our detail sufficiently near to the close of the transaction. Though, however, we have gone through it at some length, we have been forced to pass unnoticed a great variety of statements which are not unimportant in the question; and a large portion of those instances of want of energy, of capacity, of information, of activity, and of hearty co-operation, on the part of the Spaniards, which contributed to form the decision of the British General. We have also been obliged to glance

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* This is the letter which was so much required by and at length submitted to Parliament, but with omissions, which are not here supplied. The Editor subjoins the following note on this subject:

'In this dispatch there are several omissions, owing to the following circumstance:

'In the month of March last, the Secretary of State for the War Department sent for the Author, and informed him, that it was the intention of Administration to accede to laying this letter before Parliament; which, however, being a private letter, and not written in the usual manner of official dispatches, it was thought proper to omit some passages which his Lordship would point out. The Author replied, that he could not presume to object to any omissions which did not affect his brother's reputation. After this conversation it was judged improper to fill up the blanks. One passage at the beginning, however, it was considered, might be restored, where mention is made of the Honourable Brigadier-General Stewart, brother to Lord Castlereagh.'

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but slightly at the unfortunate difference of opinion which prevailed between Mr. Frere and Sir John Moore, and at the still more prejudicial want of openness and of accuracy in the communication of intelligence from the former to the latter. On these points, the curiosity of the public has been not a little excited; and materials for ample satisfaction seem to be furnished in this volume.

We confess that it strikes us, from a view of the developement afforded by this work, that the conduct of Sir John Moore was justified by appearances, and by the result; and we think also that subsequent events, to the present moment, confirm his opinions and substantiate his measures. If his decision, then, was right, not only is great praise due to his sagacity, but it must be admitted that his consequent movements are in the highest degree indicative of his military skill and of his firmness. Leaving the present representation, however, to the judgment of our readers, we shall now close the subject; to which we must speedily return, in order to take notice of various other publications relative to it which have appeared.

A portrait of Sir John Moore, a view and a plan of the battle of Corunna, and a map of Spain and Portugal, with the marches of the British columns, illustrate the volume.

ART. X. *History of the Viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres*; containing the most accurate Details relative to the Topography, History, Commerce, Population, Government, &c. &c. of that valuable Colony. By Samuel Hull Wilcocke Illustrated with Plates. 8vo. pp. 576. 12s. 6d. Boards. Symonds; Black and Co., &c.

OUR temporary possession of the city of Buenos Ayres, and the general expectation that we were to succeed to the permanent rule of the vast colony dependent on that government, seem to have occasioned the British public to be enriched with the valuable information which the pages before us communicate. As to the materials out of which this volume has been formed, the author intimates that he obtained them in consequence of having been engaged in extensive mercantile pursuits, which had relation to the Spanish colonies in South America. The value of the knowlege, also, which is here imparted, is enhanced by the difficulty of obtaining it. Most of our readers are aware of the disappointment which Dr. Robertson experienced in his application for this purpose.

On this subject it is stated by Mr. Wilcocke;

'The papers regarding America, which are deposited amongst the records of the Spanish monarchy in the *archivo* of Simancas, near Valladolid, 120 miles from the seat of government, are stated to be so numerous as to fill the largest apartment in the archivo, and to com-

pose eight hundred and seventy-three large bundles. Yet this treasure of historical and colonial knowledge is wholly inaccessible, and no admission into the archivo of Simancas is ever granted without a particular order from the king. Some years ago, however, the Spanish government seem to have relaxed, in some degree, from so much of their illiberal system, as to have given access to these archives to Don Antonio Munoz, then occupied in compiling a work called an History of the New World. Of this only one volume was completed, and Munoz was interrupted in the prosecution of his work; which contains some strictures upon the colonial policy of Spain, by which, probably, he gave offence to the council of the Indies. He was debarred from all further access to the necessary documents, and interdicted from publishing any more of his history. Munoz is since dead, and the undertaking has perished with him.

'That this system of concealment, than which nothing can be more illiberal, still predominates in the Spanish councils, is proved by a recent instance. The celebrated navigator Malespina, who, from the years 1792 to 1795, was employed by Spain to explore the Pacific Ocean, and her colonies washed by its waves, was, soon after his return to Cadiz, arrested and thrown into prison, as was the *padre Gil*, an ecclesiastic of a liberal and enlightened mind, who had undertaken the compilation of the voyage. All the papers and drawings belonging to the expedition were seized, and the botanists and other men of science, who accompanied Malespina, received orders to suspend their labours. Though part of the narrative was actually printed, the impression was suppressed; and the details of that interesting voyage are buried, as so many others have before been, amongst the dusty archives, and in the mouldy recesses of the Spanish chancery.'

With regard to the contents and arrangement of the volume, the writer gives this summary:

'After a few preliminary observations respecting the aboriginal population of America, the sources whence it has been conjectured to be derived, and the physical peculiarities of that part of the globe; an enumeration will be given of all the Spanish possessions, and their geographical and political divisions; and the attention of the reader will be more particularly directed to that portion now under consideration. A brief notice of the first discovery of the river La Plata, will be followed by such accounts as have come down to us relative to the appearance, the government, the customs, and the propensities, of the Indians who were found in the country on its first occupation by the Spaniards. Their religion, their language, and their arts, will all pass in review.

'The grand features of the country will form one of the objects of consideration.

'The natural productions occupy the next place.

'After a general account of the country, a short history will be entered into of the first discovery of the river La Plata, of its original settlers, and progressive conquerors; of the gradual extension of discovery and conquest by which the province of Buenos Ayres came at length to border upon the dominions which the valour and ferocity of

Pizarro

Pizarro and his companions had gained for Spain upon the shores of the Great South Sea; after this will follow a brief account of the rise, the progress, and the dissolution of the famous establishments of the Jesuits in Paraguay, forming an *imperium in imperio*, unparalleled in the annals of the world. The historical account of the colony will be brought down to the present time, and concluded by a narrative of the late capture of it by the British.

'The cities, the harbours, the forts, the settlements, and the missions scattered over the country, will be next described; and proceeding from these to the plains, the agriculture both of the natives and of their Spanish masters, will be noticed, together with their arts and manufactures.

'An entire chapter will be devoted to the important subject of commerce. The trade as carried on between Buenos Ayres and Spain; that with Africa; the contraband trade with the Portuguese in Brazil, and with the North Americans who frequent those seas; and the interior commerce between Peru and Chili, and the river La Plata, will be detailed. The various articles that are suited for the consumption of the country, and those produced, or found there calculated for exportation, will be enumerated and described. Sketches will be given of some commercial adventures connected with the colony of Buenos Ayres, proposed to the enterprising spirit of British Merchants; and some latent commercial advantages to be derived from this colony will be pointed out to the nation.

'The Spanish colonial government, their civil and military establishments, their fiscal regulations, the revenues of the colony, &c. will next appear in rotation. The state of society, the manners, the customs, and religious ceremonies, as well of the Spaniards, as of the creoles, the Indians, the negroes, the mulattoes, the mestices, and the infinite ramifications of colour and of cast, arising from the intermixture of these various races, will be followed by an account of those unsubdued Indians, who are occasionally allies or enemies of their European neighbours, and who rove over the trackless plains that extend from Paraguay to the straits of Magellan.'

In treating of the geographical divisions of South America, Mr. W. says;

'The Viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres is the most extensive, as well as, in many respects, the most important, of all. It extends in a direct line from Cape Lobos, which may be taken as its southern boundary, to the farthest northern settlements on the Paraguay, upwards of sixteen hundred miles; and from Cape St. Anthony, at the mouth of the Plata to the ridge of mountains that separate it from Chili, nearly one thousand miles. By the union to it of the provinces of Charcas and Chiquito, it forms a compact body of land, nearly square; and stretches through all the variety of climates to be found in six and twenty degrees of latitude. Its general boundaries are, Amazonia, or the country of the independent Indians of the river Amazon and its vicinity, on the north; Brazil and the Atlantic Ocean on the east; Patagonia on the south; and Peru and Chili on the west.'

Under the head of Rivers, which form so magnificent a feature in this country, the Rio de la Plata first attracts notice; and the author's account of that grand stream thus commences:

'The RIO DE LA PLATA, or *River of Silver*, was originally called the *River of De Solis*, from its first discoverer; but Sebastian Cabot, who first penetrated beyond the junctions of the Parana and the Paraguay, having defeated a body of Indians on the banks of the latter, obtained a considerable booty in gold and silver, whence he bestowed upon the river the pompous appellation which has since prevailed, and which has led many to believe that the precious metals are to be met with in abundance on its banks. It is, however, stated, that the treasure found in the possession of those Indians, was that which they had, in their turn, taken from Alexis de Garcia, a Portuguese, who, some years before, had penetrated from Brazil to the frontiers of Peru, and was killed, on his return with the plunder he had collected. The name, though thus originating in mistake, was too flattering to the ambitious cupidity with which the new world was regarded by the adventurers of Europe, to be easily superseded. It has been perpetuated, whilst the name of the first discoverer has been relegated to a few hills yet called the Sierra de Solis, on the northern shore of its entrance. The distinctive appellation of Rio de la Plata, however, though intended by Cabot for the whole of the majestic stream he had in part ascended, is now only applied to the channel, through which the great body of water formed by the confluence of the Parana, the Paraguay, and the Uraguay, flows into the ocean, forming an æstuary of fresh water, without parallel in the rest of the globe for width and magnificence.'

How much the late wretched government of old Spain counteracted the benificent designs of nature, the reader will be able to form a judgment from this representation of the country:

'The immense plains that extend in almost uninterrupted continuity from the banks of the Plata to Chili, and to the large rivers of Patagonia, claim particular attention. They present a sea of waving grass extending for nine hundred miles, with very few interruptions of wood or eminence. The succulent and nutritive herbage of this tract, affords pasture to those innumerable herds of cattle that rove unowned and unvalued over a great portion of South America, and whose hides and tallow alone are occasionally sought after by the Spanish hunters, and form a principal article of the trade of Buenos Ayres. Wild horses, the progeny of those imported by the Spaniards, likewise abound in these natural meads. They wander from place to place, against the current of the winds: and a traveller has stated that they are in such numbers, that, being in those plains for the space of three weeks, he was continually surrounded by them. Sometimes they passed by, in thick troops on full speed for two or three hours together, during which time, he says, it was with great

difficulty, that the party preserved themselves from being run over and trampled to pieces. At other times, however, the same country has been passed over, and no horses have been seen.

'Near the Spanish settlements, and where these plains have been tilled, they yield excellent corn, and various other productions; whilst numerous flocks of sheep are also met with in the plains at the foot of the mountains of Cordova and Yacanto. Between these hills and the Cordillera of Chili, lie many spacious and fruitful vallies, watered by brooks and rivulets, and beautifully diversified with rising grounds. They produce many kinds of fruit trees, apples, peaches, cherries, and plumbs; and also corn where the land is cultivated; but they are more particularly famous for breeding cattle, sheep, and horses, and especially mules. Of the mules yearly sent from these provinces to Peru, the greatest part comes from the district just described. There are many farms here belonging to those industrious Spaniards who have been allured hither, by the fertility of the soil, by the facility for breeding cattle, and by the security from the incursions of the Indians, who infest those only who live more to the south.'

The miserable defective policy of Spanish rule is elucidated by the curious itinerary from Buenos Ayres to Lima, which enriches this volume. The dangers of part of this journey, and which it is here shewn might be avoided, are such as stagger belief:

'When travellers pass over the lofty ridges of the Cordilleras, it is said, that from the rarefaction of the air, they can scarcely breathe, and are afflicted with nausea. This is one of the inconveniences they suffer, but it is of trifling import, when compared to the imminent danger they are exposed to in some of the narrow passes and steep declivities. The itinerary of the route from Buenos Ayres to Lima displays some of those dangers, which appear in tenfold array along the less frequented paths across the Cordillera. Their ruggedness is not easily described. In many places the road is so narrow that the mules have scarcely room to set their feet, and in others it is a continual series of precipices. These paths are full of holes from two to three feet deep, in which the mules set their feet, and draw their bellies and the rider's legs along the ground. Indeed these holes serve as steps, without which the precipices would, in a great measure, be impracticable; but should the creature happen to set his foot between two of these holes, or not place it right, the rider falls; and, if on the side of the precipice, inevitably perishes. The danger is, however, greater, where these holes, or camelones as the Spaniards call them, are wanting. For the tracks are extremely steep and slippery, in general chalky and wet; and where there are no holes to serve as steps, Indians are obliged to go before with small spades, which they carry with them for that purpose, to dig little trenches across the path. This work is continual, every party requiring a repetition of it, for in less than a night, the rain utterly destroys all the trenches cut during the preceding day. In descending these places, where there

there are no holes or trenches, and which are sometimes several hundred yards deep, the instinct of the mules that are accustomed to pass them, is admirable. They are sensible of the caution requisite in the descent. On coming to the top of an eminence, they stop, and having placed their fore feet close together, as in a posture of stopping themselves; they also put their hind feet together, but a little forwards as if going to lie down. In this attitude, having, as it were, taken a survey of the road, they slide down with the swiftness of a meteor. All the rider has to do is to keep himself fast in the saddle, without checking his beast; for the least motion is sufficient to disorder the equilibrium of the mule, in which case they must both unavoidably perish. The address of these creatures is here truly wonderful, for in this rapid motion, when they seem to have lost all government of themselves, they follow exactly the different windings of the path, as if they had before accurately reconnoitered, and previously settled in their minds, the route they were to follow, and taken every precaution for their safety, amidst so many irregularities. There would indeed otherwise be no possibility of travelling over such places, where the safety of the rider depends on the experience and address of his beast.'—

'There are indeed some places where these declivities are not on the sides of precipices; but the road is so narrow and hollow, and the sides so perpendicular, that the danger is almost equal; for the track being extremely confined, and scarcely wide enough to admit the mule with its rider; if the beast falls, the man must be crushed, or, for want of room to disengage himself, have a limb broken. It is really wonderful to observe the mules, after they have overcome the first emotions of fear, and are going to slide down the declivity, with what exactness they stretch out their fore legs, that by preserving a due equilibrium they may not fall on one side, yet, at a proper distance, make with their bodies, that gentle inclination necessary to follow the several windings of the path; as well as their address in stopping themselves at the end of their impetuous career. The human species could not shew more prudence or conduct than the mules do; and some of them, after being long used to these journies, acquire a kind of reputation for their skill and safety, and are accordingly highly valued.'

A very particular and detailed account of all the principal mines, which are worked in this colony, will be found in the present volume; and we should be glad to quote some of the passages, if we could gratify all our inclinations amid such variety. We cannot, however, refrain from subjoining parts of Mr. Wilcocke's description of two places which were not long since the subjects of conversation among us:

'Buenos Ayres was erected into a bishopric in 1620. Before its elevation into a viceroyalty, this city was only considered as the fourth in rank in South America; but it is now held as inferior to none but Lima. Since it thus became the seat of a new government, it has greatly increased in opulence and in population. It is regularly built, and its streets are broad, unpaved in the middle, and with footpaths

on each side. The houses are reckoned to be six thousand in number. Most of the buildings, both public and private, had formerly only mud walls, but a lay-brother of the Jesuits, who was employed to erect the church of his college about sixty years ago, made bricks and lime, and instructed the inhabitants in those useful arts, since which time the city has assumed a very different appearance. The architecture of the cathedral, and of most of the churches, is likewise ascribed to the lay-brothers of that community. The cathedral is spacious and elegant. It has a cupola of excellent workmanship, and a portico, the design and execution of which are much extolled. The interior is profusely, perhaps tawdrily, decorated with carved and gilt work. In the dome are paintings in copartments, representing the acts of the apostles. The churches of St Francis, and that of the convent of Mercy, are next in estimation, and have cupolas and steeples nearly in the same style as the cathedral. In the church of the Franciscans, there is a picture of the Last Supper, painted by an Indian neophyte, of one of the Uraguay missions, which is considered as a very capital performance for a native artist: the frame of it is composed entirely of feathers of a bright gold colour, so artfully contrived as to appear to the nicest observer to be the most correct carving and gilding; nor can the difference be discovered till it is touched by the hand: this picture was a present to the Franciscans from the Jesuits, not many years before their expulsion. The church of St. John, which is on the skirts of the town, is appropriated to the Christian Indians. The town-hall, which stands on one side of the great square or parade, is a large and handsome building, likewise erected on a plan of the Jesuits. There are several convents and nunneries; and all these edifices are built of a beautiful white stone, which is found in a small plain not far from the town. The whiteness of the public buildings is much improved by the frequency of the Pampero, which is considered as an excellent bleacher. The principal streets are the *Calle del Santa Trinidada*, and the *Calle del San Benito*. The former, which faces the great door of the cathedral, runs almost the whole length of the town, and is occupied by the better sort of inhabitants. Many of the opulent inhabitants have villas in the country, and almost every house has a garden, both before and behind; and many have balconies with lattice-work, for the reception of odoriferous shrubs and flowers. The interior of the houses is, in general, however, very dirty, from the indolence of the inhabitants. In summer, the rooms are covered with fine Indian matting, and in winter with European carpets. Every garden is refreshed by water let in from the river Plata, by a kind of sluice made of osiers, woven very strong and thick. The water thus admitted, is sent by smaller channels round the beds, and a quantity of it is generally retained in a large basin or reservoir, of which there is one in every extensive garden. The water when thus retained, is very clear and sparkling, but by its great coldness, it is apt, when drank, to bring on dysenteries and other dangerous diseases. Part of the town, which is principally inhabited by mestices and negroes, has a very miserable and filthy appearance, and strongly contrasts with the opulence and taste displayed in the other.

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'The inhabitants were usually estimated at about thirty thousand, but the calculation of Sir Home Popham carries them to the number seventy thousand. One fourth of the population are whites; the others are negroes, Indians, and people of mixed breed.

'The castle or fort is very insignificant, in point of military importance; it contains a house for the military governor, and a royal chapel. At the time of the capture, there were about forty cannon of various calibres, mounted; and two thousand stand of arms were found in it. The usual garrison was seven hundred men, and about three thousand of the militia of the country were supposed to be always in readiness to co-operate with the regulars.

'Buenos Ayres is well supplied with provisions, particularly with fish in great abundance, and variety, from the river. There is no place in Europe or America, where butcher's meat is more plentiful, better in quality, or cheaper in price; it is frequently distributed gratis to the poor, as it is the usual custom to buy the hide alone, the carcase being in some measure a gratuitous addition; and the meat is always fat and very palatable. Poultry, considering the price of other provisions, is very dear; a couple of fowls generally sell for as much as a whole ox. The river-water is rather muddy, but soon becomes clear and drinkable by being kept in large earthen vessels made for the purpose, or in the garden-reservoirs, as before mentioned. Wheat bread is sold at a rate, which makes it equal to about 7d. per English quartern loaf; and the price is fixed and permanent; the loaves are made to correspond in size with the different small coins of the country.'—

'*Montevideo* is the best, and indeed the only good port in this river. The Spaniards are sensible of the importance of this place, and have taken great pains to fortify it; having made it much stronger than Buenos Ayres. The entrance of the port is not very broad. The harbour derives its name from a high mountain on its western point, which may be seen at the distance of twelve, or even sixteen leagues.

'It is dangerous to sail too near to the western point, as there are many rocks under water. On the east side the entrance is deeper and safer. Beyond the western point there is a square battery built close to the water's edge. The bay is almost circular, and within it, on the east side, there is a small island abounding with rabbits. The surrounding land is very high, and protects the bay from all winds. The water is always as smooth as a mill-pond, and there is sufficient depth for ships of the first rate. The bottom is soft clay.

'The town of Montevideo occupies the whole of a peninsular promontory, that forms the eastern point of the harbour. The fortifications are to the north; they are regular works, built of stone, inclosing the whole of the peninsula, and have a pretty strong fort, with four bastions and mounted with brass cannon, in the centre; the barracks are bomb-proof. The garrison is generally about four or five hundred men. The other side of the bay is without any fortification, nor has the high mountain even so much as a watch-tower. The town makes a handsome appearance from the harbour, as it is built upon an ascent, and the houses appear interspersed with gar-

dens

dens and trees. The houses are of stone and brick, only one story high, except a few; the roofs are flat, and the floors of brick, though some have only earth. The governor's residence, which has been compared to a range of livery-stables in England, is of such construction. Few houses have glass windows. There are some, however, that belong to people of distinction, which are two and three stories high, and have balconies in front. None have any chimnies; fire is generally kindled in the yard, or a separate kitchen, and in wet or cold weather it is brought into the rooms in fire-pans. The streets run strait, and cross each other at right angles, but with one or two exceptions are very incommodious, being composed of large loose stones and sand.'

The readers of this work will be highly gratified and instructed by the details which it contains respecting the famed settlements of the Jesuits in this colony, their origin, extent, and subversion. Howsoever mischievous may have been the agency of this society in Europe, we find that in South America its power arose from the tendency of its proceedings to advance the interests of humanity, and the extension of civilization.

If we pass over the statements and observations with which we are presented in these pages, relative to the civil and ecclesiastical administration of the Spanish colonies, the different classes of the inhabitants, the commercial regulations of the parent state, and their effects, it is not because we deem them to be unimportant, but because we have recently descanted on them in our review of Mr. Brougham's performance on colonization*; which they so much resemble, as to induce in us a belief that they have been taken from that able work, or that the two authors have drawn from the same sources. We are also precluded by our limits from entering on the curious detail of natural history, which adds to the interest and value of the volume; and some particulars of this kind were communicated from another publication, in our 53d Vol. N. S. p. 148. The author modestly admits and apologizes for the literary defects of his performance: but these are neither numerous nor considerable; and they are more than compensated by the value of the information which it communicates, and the good sense of the observations by which it is accompanied.

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* See Rev. Vol. L. N. S. p. 1.

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NOVELS.

Art. 11. *Ned Bentley.* By J. Amphlett. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

MR. Amphlett adverts in his preface, with some acrimony, to the '*slovenly monthly catalogue*' in which novels are generally classed by Reviewers: but, judging of others from himself, he affirms that 'a novel writer enters the list of authors with his mind made up to receive every species of ill-usage, like an ill-used ass by the road side, who screws up his hide in expectation of receiving a blow from every person who goes near him.' After this humble though sturdy declaration, Mr Amphlett proceeds to avow that he is 'content if his work be allowed to class among the least exceptionable ones of its kind;' and we shall proceed to inquire how far it may claim such a character.

If to contain nothing which can alarm the delicacy or offend the piety of the reader may constitute a novel 'unexceptionable,' the history of Ned Bentley is intitled to the negative praise to which its author aspires: but, though we feel some respect even for this sort of recommendation, we cannot allow a freedom from impurity to claim for it an exemption from criticism. We must state our opinion, then, that the story is contradictory as well as improbable: we see a boy, who had been brought up as a servant till his seventeenth birth-day, suddenly emerging from the kitchen, well acquainted with living manners and dead languages: we meet with a barber gifted with similar gentility and acumen; and we are introduced to another footman, who has not even virtue and the classics to recommend him, but who, after having attempted various robberies and murders, marries a gentlewoman who is acquainted with his history. Besides avoiding these extravagancies, it is to be wished that all authors, who have previously been readers, would sometimes revert to the elementary and laudable exercise of *Parsing*; and, in imitation of Mr. Amphlett, we shall transcribe a definition of this word from Johnson's Dictionary:

"To PARSE. To resolve a sentence into the elements or parts of speech.

"Let scholars reduce the words to their original: to the first case of nouns or first tense of verbs, and give an account of their formation and changes, their syntax and dependencies, which is called *parsing*."

If Mr. Amphlett had examined his manuscript by this rule, he could hardly have left in it such a string of grammatical errors as are clustered in the following sentences:—'He *eat* moderately, and *overcame* with fatigue he now reclined on the earth, and fell into a profound sleep. Ned was *awoke* in the morning,' &c.—'Helen and Mary were more gratified than they *scarce dare* to appear.'—'Helen had *paled* during the progress of his narrative.'—'If she spoke *civil* and *respectful* to Sir Hubert,' &c. Some colloquial inelegancies also occur; such as giving an offending servant '*orders to leave* at the end of a month;' Ned's complimenting Mary '*on her talent at the cheerful*,' &c.

&c. We will dwell no longer, however, on these inaccuracies, while the pleasure which some parts of this work afforded us remains unacknowleged. It is written throughout with much spirit, and contains many reflections which indicate a mind that is attentive to the truths and vicissitudes of life, and nicely observant of the varieties in the human feelings and character. The description of the hero's youthful fortitude is very interesting; and the scene of recognition with his mother is affecting and natural. Mr Bar.

Art. 12. *The Husband and the Lover.* An Historical and Moral Romance. 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1809.

Though we disapprove the mixture of truth and fiction which is generally found in historical romances, and think with Lafeu, (in "All's well that ends well,') that "one that lies three thirds, and uses a known truth to pass a thousand nothings with, should be once heard, and thrice beaten," still we were much pleased with the romance before us, and found in the last two volumes considerable promise of future merit. The first volume consists chiefly of details of the fêtes and tournaments exhibited at the court of Louis XIV., which are all copied from the *Mémoires de St. Simon*, except the embellishment of 'nymphs' in the grottos of St. Germain, 'playing charming rural airs on an organ.' We meet also with descriptions of the Country of France, taken from Swinburne; and conversations on natural history, avowedly borrowed from Buffon. The memory of the Count de Grammont is unfairly attacked by a story which is discreditable to his valour; and, after having read a minute account of the dresses worn by him and by every individual at the tournament, we were rather dismayed at finding that they changed their attire in consequence of a masquerade, and that we had to encounter another catalogue of plumes and armour, turbans and stockings. When, however, the author has exhausted the stock of quotations, and made us sufficiently acquainted with the wardrobes of the *dramatis personæ*, this work rises considerably in our estimation by its animated relation of the conquests of John Sobieski and his delivery of Vienna; and we think that great commendation is due to the writer for the care which has here been taken to avoid unneccessary violations of the veracity of history: as well as for the art and industry with which many interesting and authentic anecdotes have been woven into the story. Do

Art. 13. *Sir Owen Glendower*, and other Tales. By Ant. Frederick Holstein. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. sewed. Lane and Co.

Dr. Johnson observed that the invention of a story was no inconsiderable effort of the human mind;—and if this remark be true, some applause must be due to the author of these tales, which are all different from each other in their plot, and of which each displays marks of originality. 'Sir Owen Glendower' was the tale which afforded us least satisfaction, though some humour occurs in the description which it contains of Welsh festivities. In works of this sort, we consider the want of probability as a fault much more deserving of toleration, and more susceptible of amendment, than the want of spirit or of interest: yet we would advise this author, when he

he undertakes to write a history of modern characters, to put such speeches in their mouths as it is at least possible for them to make: the romantic dialogues in 'the Orphan Heiress' are ridiculous, instead of being pathetic and probable. He should also attend more to the construction of his sentences, some of which are obviously incorrect. The plot, however, of 'the Orphan Heiress' is new and singular; that of 'Egbert' is interesting, as well as excentric; and, on the whole, we venture from these specimens to augur favourably of the author's future productions. Mr. Bar.

Art. 14. *Leicestershire Tales.* By Miss Mary Linwood. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards. R. Phillips.

These tales are more deficient in interest than in moral. Most of the events are either too improbable to excite sympathy, or too insignificant to arrest attention; and the different personages are hurried from one country and continent to another, with such theatrical velocity, that our wearied imaginations refused to follow them: particularly as we conceived that, in the descriptions of their travels, a geographical dictionary had been so unceremoniously employed as to preclude much hope of original observations. The chief character of each tale seems commendably intended to display the evil consequences of some particular failing: but in the conduct of their history we remark this defect, that their misfortunes are not attributable to the foible from which they are supposed to originate. For instance, the sorrows of an *indolent* character spring from an elopement to which she has in an evil hour consented; and the reader, after having witnessed several minor misfortunes proceeding from her indolence, instead of moralizing on this last *faux pas*, is vainly puzzled in tracing the paradoxical analogy between laziness and lightness of heels. Do.

Art. 15. *Rebecca, or the Victim of Duplicity.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. sewed. Lackington and Co.

Though this novel present some obvious improbabilities, we were at least gratified with perceiving a higher tone of morality than is usually found in books of this class. The author has collected wise and clear arguments against infidelity; for the repetition of which we must thank him, because, however trite they may appear, they cannot be repeated too often, while one infidel remains who may chance to peruse them. The misery produced by "the fellowship of the ungodly" is illustrated by a tale which is not devoid of interest; and in which the sufferings of the most estimable character (the heroine's father,) are compensated not in the usual way, by raising him to unexpected wealth and honours, but by giving him a spirit of religion which enables him to find consolation in a life of piety and benevolence, and in looking forwards to repose in heaven. With the lighter parts of the work we were not much amused: the heroine's letters from London are rather pert than clever; and in all the conversations which are meant to be particularly lively, we think that vulgarity has been unfortunately mistaken for wit and humour. Do.

Art. 16. *The Soldier's Orphan.* A Tale by Mrs. Costello. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

Some novels have no character at all, "and this is one of them." It

It is neither remarkably dull nor particularly lively; neither perfectly uninteresting nor peculiarly pleasing; in short, neither commendable nor reprehensible. It would indeed be almost as difficult to bear away the palm of superior insipidity from the crowd of rivals who seem constantly contending for it, as to win that of pre-eminent excellence from the few who have endeavoured to attain it. Of a work of such negative merit as 'The Soldier's Orphan,' the highest recommendation is that it will do no harm: though it may not improve, it cannot mislead; and the balance is carried so even, that it atones in morality for what it wants in interest. *Mr.* Bar.

Art. 17. *The Cottage of the Var.* A Tale. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Tipper. 1809.

In treating of some works, description answers all the purposes of animadversion; and of this class is the production before us. The hero is a genius who, though '*his black brows were drawn by the pencil of strong sense*,' had '*attained the age of one and twenty without having passed one hour in reflection since his birth.*' At last, on hearing a sweet voice in a wood, '*for the first time in his life he began to think*;' and owing to the novelty of the occupation, he soon became so '*lost in thought*,' as to wander insensibly to the cottage in which the songstress resided with her majestic mamma. This heroine has '*a seraphic appearance*,' together with a straw hat and straw basket, and '*music books selected by an elegant mind.*'—After having passed through the usual routine of dangers and discoveries, the lady and gentleman have the comfort of being happily married, and of seeing their enemies punished: but, at last, the heroine turns out to be an Italian countess!—These tinsel coronets multiply on us so fast, that we have sometimes resolved to read no novel which does not give a circumstantial account of the heroine's birth and parentage in the first chapter; because, where this is wanting, we read in constant dread of her overwhelming us in her last moments with a mass of uninteresting evidence to prove that she is a countess in her own right. D^o. 6/D

Art. 18. *Matilda Montford.* A Romantic Novel. By Peter Peregrine, Esq. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Spencer. 1809.

The motto prefixed to each of these volumes is,

"Lend thy *serious* hearing
To what I shall unfold;" (Shakspeare.)

and the recurrence of this injunction was our only defence against the risibility which was excited by various passages that seem intended to be sublime; such as the addresses to modesty, sleep, and health; together with descriptions of 'chrystal lakes' and 'flowing lakes,' 'murky air,' and 'misty mountains,' seen '*before the Sun had opened the window of the east.*' These landscapes are sometimes enlivened with '*busy vintage men*,' and sometimes with '*ruddy sickle men*,' vulgarly called reapers. The story is all told in the last volume; for though in the first we were on the point of hearing two or three death-bed confessions, which might have enabled us to conjecture the remainder that was to be '*unfolded*,' the invalids recovered, and kept their lives and their secrets more pertinaciously than we re-

tained our patience. Throughout the work we see an affected inversion of words; and so many adjectives, that, if those which are superfluous had been retrenched, at least two volumes would have been taken off our hands. Such a scheme, however, might have answered our purposes, but would not perhaps have equally accommodated the author: who seems to have been so inveterately determined on producing four *tomes* of this novel, *coute qui coute*, as to present his readers with several duplicate seizures and sicknesses, which are almost the only vicissitudes of life that he has chosen to notice; and his personages have consequently such shocking health and such frequent falls, that their history seems most calculated to amuse the leisure moments of a hospital nurse. Mrs. Bar.

Art. 19. *Guiscard*; or the Accusation. A Romance. By Horace Vere. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Newman and Co.

The style of this novel is always simple and dignified, and in some parts even masterly; and the story, though rather intricate, is interesting and moral. It shews the powers of Friendship, and the benefit of her exertions: but we were sorry to see the noble and ardent Sir Eustace led by his affection for his friend into an act of treachery, even towards the despicable Bolebec. The abbot's description of his own old age is touching and pathetic. Do

Art. 20. *Theodore and Blanche*; or the Victims of Love. From the French of Madame Cottin. 2 vols. 12mo. 9s. Boards. Tipper. 1808.

Though this little story is far from deserving to be ranked with the higher productions of Madame Cottin's pen, yet it may excite some interest in those who depend on the circulating library for all their pleasurable studies. The translation has been very hastily executed; the diction is often barbarous; and the grammar is not seldom inaccurate. Den.

POETRY.

Art. 21. *Horæ Ionicæ*: a Poem descriptive of the Ionian Islands, and Part of the adjacent Coast of Greece. By Waller Rodwell Wright, Esq. sometime His Britannic Majesty's Consul General for the Republic of the Seven Islands. 8vo. pp. 67. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

The voyage, with which Mr. Wright indulges his readers, is of so attractive a nature, and his company and conversation in the course of it are so agreeable, that most of them will regret the shortness of its duration, and the slight manner in which he touches at his several points. Corcyra naturally detains him longest: he there examines the site of the Homeric gardens of Alcinous; points to the rock which still preserves its denomination of the ship of Ulysses,

—' for ever rooted in the sea
The monument of Neptune's stern decree;'

and, as he gazes on the calm and ample bay, is transported to the period at which the island flourished in wealth and splendor, the colony of luxurious Corinth. He is then reminded of revolt and separation, and describes in very animated lines the banishment and return,

turn, the desperate resistance and fatal overthrow, of the few who, in the midst of dissaffection, still retained their allegiance to the mother-country. The successful defence of Corfu against the Turks in 1645 is less amply detailed: indeed, it was necessary for the author to confine himself to general expressions, because the particulars of the attack are very imperfectly known; and the names of the leaders to whom their country owed its protection have been unfortunately and unjustly forgotten. This idea is happily conveyed by Mr. Wright, after having mentioned the slaughter of the enemy:—

'Fain the muse would tell
Beneath whose arm their bravest leaders fell:
But dark oblivion shrouds each glorious name,
And fate, which crown'd their valour, wrongs their fame.'

Our poetical guide now leads us to various interesting spots in the other islands, which are endeared to a classical mind by the most pleasing recollections; and he visits particular districts on the Grecian coasts, which are remarkable for similar associations, or adorned with the ruins of antient architecture, or distinguished in modern times by their exemption from the petty tyrants of the Ottoman empire. Mr. W.'s verses are flowing; his language is pure and unaffected; and his subjects are uniformly delightful: but we decline to make quotations from the poem, for the sake of inserting his neat summary of the peculiarities which mark the modern Greek language, as it is spoken in the Ionian islands.

'The dialect in general use throughout these islands and the adjacent part of the continent of Greece is the Doric; but corrupted by the introduction of a great number of Italian words, and some of Turkish origin, which have, for the most part, been naturalized by the addition of Greek terminations.

'The radical words of the modern Greek, in general, bear a near affinity to those of the ancient language: and the principal differences between the two are those of pronunciation and inflection.

'The first of these is the invariable observance of accent, and disregard of quantity; which, although they may be tolerated in ordinary conversation or in the reading of prose authors, by destroying the melody of rhythm, considerably detract from the beauties of Homer and Theocritus, and are still more sensibly felt in the works of the tragedians and lyric poets.

'It would be too bold an attempt to determine how far the force of the vowels, diphthongs, and certain of the consonants in the modern system of pronunciation, may correspond with the usage of the classical ages: but the difference between the English and Romaic pronunciation of the Greek may be principally reduced to the following table:

α is pronounced as *a* in the Italian.

$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\varepsilon \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \\ \alpha\iota \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots \\ \eta \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\end{array}\right\}$ *e*.....

η, υ, οι, ει ..... *i*.....

ου ..... as *u* in Italian, or *o o* in English.

ο. ω. ..... as *o* without any difference as to the quantity, and indeed frequently inverting it.*

'υ after a vowel becomes a consonant, and is sounded as *v*, which sound is also common to the β; thus, βασιλευς is pronounced *vasilevs*. χ is a peculiar national letter of a harsh guttural sound, resembling, but somewhat more aspirated than, the German pronunciation of the letter *g*; and

'δ has the force of the softened *th*, as in *thee, thou*, &c.

'With respect to inflection, the modern Greek seems to be very deficient; and indeed that defect is chiefly supplied, as in other modern languages, by prefixing prepositions to mark the relations of the substantives, and conjunctions to distinguish the moods of the verbs.

'In the latter, the aorist is the past tense most commonly used; and the preterite and its derivatives are formed in all the voices respectively, by the auxiliaries ἐχειν and εἰναι.

'The infinitive is no longer in use, but its place is supplied by 'να (the contraction of ἱνα) prefixed to the verb in the subjunctive mood; by a singular anomaly, however, in conversation, the infinitive mood of the verb ειμι, is almost the only part used when speaking in the present tense.

'Another peculiarity of the modern Greek is the adoption of the indefinite article, in conformity also with the genius of other European languages: ενα in the masculine and μια in the feminine serve for all cases without an inflection.

'In consequence of these differences, the ear which is accustomed to the English pronunciation of the Greek language seeks in vain for that full, sonorous cadence which early habits have taught us to admire, and finds in its stead an acute, stridulous combination of sounds, which is far from being either agreeable or harmonious; while the mind is disgusted at the barbarous structure of a dialect which confounds the anomalies of ancient and modern grammar.

'I do not presume to extend these observations beyond the limits of the Ionian islands; though, from the few opportunities which I have had of listening to the conversation of the Albanian soldiery, I believe that, as far as relates to pronunciation, they may be equally applicable to the people of that district, who are reported, in other respects, to speak the Romaic dialect with a degree of purity much nearer to that of the ancient Greek: while (singular as it may appear) the natives of Attica, though still remarkable for wit and acuteness of intellect, speak a more barbarous jargon than even the inhabitants of the Ionian Islands. Much has been done, since the first connection of the court of St. Petersburgh with the Greeks of the continent, towards purifying the Romaic, and reducing it to the

* Thus Ανθρωπος is pronounced as if written Ανθρωπως.

form of a regular dialect, and many works in that language have been published at Trieste.

'The Legislative Assembly of the Seven Islands had also decreed, that after ten years no other language should be used in the promulgation of the laws, the public records, pleadings, and process of the courts of justice.

'What might have been the effect of this regulation it is impossible to determine; but I am much inclined to suspect, that the improvement of their literature would never have maintained an equal pace with the rapid progress of their political corruption.'

We are sorry to learn from Mr. W.'s preface, that in consequence of the occupation of this short-lived republic, (called by him the Septinsular territory) by a French force, the world has lost a more extensive work which he had meditated on the same subject, by his having been deprived of the materials which he had collected; together with a valuable library, which was confiscated and sold by the French at Zante, as English property. We apprehend that his proposed tract would have been very generally acceptable, and are unwilling to resign the hope that the loss may, in a considerable degree, be repaired. Den.

Art. 22. *Brighton*. A Poem. Descriptive of the Place, and Parts adjacent, and other Poems. By Mary Lloyd. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Harding. 1809.

Shall princely Brighton remain unsung, while so many other watering-places of less note have been be-puffed and be-praised in verse? It must not be, says Miss (or Mrs.) Mary Lloyd;

" *Laudabunt alii claram Rhodon, aut Mitylenen,*
Aut Ephesum, bimarisve Corinthi
Mœnia.— (Hor.)

" and I will chuse Brighton for my theme." It must be confessed that she has endeavoured to make the most of it; and though she has invoked no muse, knowing perhaps that the ladies of the hill are very coy, she has contrived, with a pen which seems to have *the gift of going*, to weave into her poem the characteristic features of the place, from the pavilion of the Prince to the bathing machine of Martha Gun.

Thus is the subject of the poem apostrophized:

'Brighton*! thou loveliest neighbour of the wave,
Whose stately cliffs the rolling surges lave,
Where roseate *health* amid the breezes *play*,
Whose gentle breathings cool the fervid ray
Of scorching summer; pleasing gay Retreat,
Beauty's, and fashion's ever favourite seat:
Where splendour lays its cumbrous pomp aside,
Content, in softer, simpler paths to glide;
Where in succession, various pastimes sport,
Where nature's grand and simple beauties court,
Where every taste may find a charm to please,
If fond of the sublime; the surging seas

'* Brighthelmstone is supposed to have derived its name from Brighthelm, the name of some considerable person to whom it belonged; and the Saxon word Tun, signifying town: it was abbreviated to Brighton, about the end of the 17th century.'

Their vast floods rolling on the sounding shores,
When the bold wind unfolds the billowy stores;
Will lift with solemn awe the wond'ring soul,
To Him! who bade those mighty waters roll.
Or if in simpler scenes thou find'st delight,
The *country* round thy devious steps *invite*,
To mount the uplands, or the daisied plains
To trace, and list while birds their melting strains,
Of youthful day enamour'd, sweetly trill,
While snowy flocks adorn the fragrant hill.'

The fishermen, the bathing, the rocks, the cliffs, the chalybeate spring, the signal-house, the parade, the races, the devil's dyke, the libraries, the church-yard, the Steyne, Preston and Wick, the theatre, the circus, and assembly rooms, &c. are all noticed, and described in such a way as may be acceptable to the frequenters of Brighton, who will easily follow the writer from object to object. Since ladies bathing form an important and attractive feature at watering-places, this lady-poet has not only devoted some lines to the description of that ceremony, but has done Martha Gun the honour of making her *priestess of the mysteries*:

'But softer scenes invite the cheerful eye,
When the calm sea reflects the azure sky;
When gentle zephyrs o'er the waters sweep
Their silken wings, and scarcely move the deep;
When beauteous fair-ones to the beach repair,
To taste the wave*, or breathe the sea-fraught air;
Or wait in turns, their lovely forms to lave,
And steal fresh beauties from the ambient wave:
See each fair cheek a brighter tint display,
Each sparkling eye emits a livelier ray;
The vital stream swift coursing from the heart,
Diffuses glowing health through every part:
Each rose-lip'd Hebè, now more *brightly* fair,
With buoyant spirits seems to tread the air.
But hence, profane ones! nor with prying face
Approach the precincts of this hallow'd place;
Where Martha Gun, sage *priestess* of the shrine,
Guards, with religious care, *the rights divine*:
Twice twenty times the glorious circling sun,
O'er the blue sea his annual course has run,
Since honest Martha, in the lucid wave,
To beauty's charms an added lustre gave;
Now aged grown, and toil no more her lot,
Yet still she hovers round the favourite spot.'

We have heard of some Actæons who are very desirous of having a peep at these 'rites divine.' but we hope that the tremendous aspect of Martha Gun will keep such audacious sparks at a proper distance.

As Miss Mary Lloyd professes to be *young in poetic deeds*, (this

* 'About 1750 the medical use of sea-water was brought into practice at this place by Dr. Russel.'

being

being her first attempt,) we would rather treat her with one of our smiles than with a surly frown: but since she has now *broken the ice*, (as we say,) and may be induced to plunge again and again in the poetic wave, we would recommend her to be more fastidious; and in particular not to suppose that *peace* rhymes well to *race*, or *return* to *sun*, or that grammar may be sacrificed to rhyme.

All good christians will say Amen to her Address to the Deity:

> 'Thou gracious Source of Mercy! that afar
> From this blest Isle, hath kept the seat of war!
> Oh! when it pleases thy Omniscient will!
> Speak peace, and bid the warring world be still.'

We are sorry not to be able to compliment this lady on her Miscellaneous Poems: but the loungers at the libraries may call them pretty. Mo-y.

Art. 23. *The Sceptic*: a philosophical Satire. By the Author of Corruption and Intolerance *. 8vo. 1s. Carpenter. 1809.

Should the rule of Des Cartes be adopted, "*de iis omnibus studiamus dubitare, in quibus vel minimam incertitudinis suspicionem reperiemus*," scepticism would unavoidably be the reigning fashion. Among philosophers, it has always been in request; and we need never be ashamed of doubting, when we recollect that by so doing we keep the very best company: but between that doubting which acts as a signal to guard us against drifting on the rocks of implicit faith, and the obstinate resistance of evidence which inevitably impells towards the vortex of Infidelity, an open sea expands, in which all the truly wise will endeavour to steer their bark.

This spirited satirist wishes to be considered as not less orthodox than sceptical: but we will not promise him that he will pass muster with the saints. As a poet, he has energy, and his satiric lash is made of good whip-chord. His use of it, in the region of politics, will be called *fun* by one party and *no fun* by the other: but we shall follow the poet to the department of scientific and theological scepticism.

> 'In Science too—how many a system, rais'd
> Like Neva's icy domes, awhile hath blaz'd
> With lights of fancy and with forms of pride,
> Then, melting, mingled with the oblivious tide
> *Now* Earth usurps the centre of the sky,
> *Now* Newton puts the paltry planet by;
> *Now* whims revive beneath Descartes's pen,
> Which *now* assail'd by Locke's, expire again:
> And when, perhaps, in pride of chemic powers,
> We think the keys of nature's kingdom ours,
> Some Davy's magic touch the dream unsettles,
> And turns at once our alkalis to metals!
> Or, should we roam in metaphysic maze,
> Through fair-built theories of former days,
> Some Dr—mm—d from the north, more ably skill'd,

* See our Review for April last.

* This author, I understand from good authority, is Anacreon Moore.

Like other Goths, to ruin than to build,
Tramples triumphant through our fanes o'erthrown,
Nor leaves one grace, one glory of his own!
'OH Learning! Learning! whatsoe'er thy boast,
Unlettered minds have taught and charm'd us most;
The rude, unread Columbus was our guide
To worlds, which learn'd Lactantius had deny'd,
And one wild Shakespeare, following Nature's lights,
Is worth whole planets, fill'd with Stagirites;
'SEE grave Theology, when once she strays
From Revelation's path, what tricks she plays!
How many various heavens hath Fancy's wing
Explor'd or touch'd, from Papias down to King!
And hell itself, in India nought but smoke,
In Spain's a furnace, and in France—a joke.
'HAIL, modest Ignorance! thou goal and prize,
Thou last, best knowledge of the humbly wise!
Hail, sceptic ease! when error's waves are past,
How sweet to reach thy tranquil port at last,
And, gently rock'd in undulating doubt,
Smile at the sturdy winds, which war without!
There gentle Charity, who knows how frail
The bark of Virtue, even in summer's gale,
Sits by the nightly fire, whose beacon glows
For all who wander, whether friends or foes!
There Faith retires, and keeps her white sail furl'd,
Till call'd to spread it for a purer world;
While patience lingers o'er the weedy shore,
And mutely waiting till the storm be o'er,
Turns to young Hope, who still directs his eye
To some blue spot, just breaking in the sky!
'THESE are the mild, the blest associates given
To him who doubts, and trusts in nought but Heaven!'

The lines flow with ease, but do not *tamely* flow. **Mo-y.**

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 24. *A Critical Essay on the ninth book of Bishop Warburton's Divine Legation of Moses.* Published in consequence of having gained the annual Prize, instituted by the late Rev. J. Hulse, A. M. of St John's College. By John Norman Pearson, Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 140. 4s. sewed. Hatchard.

While we allow Bishop Warburton to be 'great, animated, and original,' we cannot think that his writings, notwithstanding their learning and elaborate research, have contributed in any extent to the elucidation of Scripture; or that his theological Odyssey, the Ninth Book of the Divine Legation, was now deserving of a Critical Essay. Mr. Pearson, however, regarding some of its positions as heterodox, has here made it his business formerly to combat them; and he begins with Dr. W.'s account of the original state of man, in which Adam is represented as capable of discovering the several parts of Natural

Natural Religion by the unassisted efforts of the human understanding. This position the essayist does not deny: but he argues that it is natural to suppose, from adverting to the processes of the divine dispensations, 'that Adam derives his notions of Natural Religion by immediate inspiration.' When it is allowed that the Scriptures are silent concerning the manner in which Adam acquired a knowlege of his moral obligations, hypothesis may be set in array against hypothesis without the possibility of arriving at any definite conclusion: but we did not expect that in the mathematical University, where the doctrine is, *Frustra fit per plura, quod fieri potest per pauciora,* we should hear it maintained that God made man in his own image, capable of Natural Religion, and then communicated it by inspiration. Indeed, 'Natural Religion communicated by Inspiration' appears a complete solecism; for by the former is meant that religion to the discovery of which human reason is competent; and by the latter, knowlege afforded through supernatural means. The deductions of Geometry being within the scope of human reason, it would surely be strange to have them represented as the result of inspiration.

With no more success, in our opinion, does Mr. P. controvert Dr. W.'s notion of the efficacy of repentance under the dispensation of Natural Religion; and, to our surprise, he asserts that 'we are not authorized by the Sacred Writings, nor by any inference legitimately deduced from the facts stated in them, to conclude that repentance alone is available for the remission of sins. 'What will Mr. P. make of the following scriptural declarations? "A broken heart is a sacrifice God will not despise"—"the Lord saveth the contrite spirit"—"Let the wicked forsake his way and the Lord will abundantly pardon"—"Turn unto me, saith the Lord, and I will turn unto you;" to say nothing of the parable of the returning prodigal. Farther on, it is asserted that 'nothing but an uniform course of uninterrupted obedience can *entitle* a creature to God's favour;' Mr. P. might have added, nor that either: but the question is not about what we are *intitled to receive,* but respecting *the measure of divine placability*; and it is a representation of the justice of God which is not warranted by holy writ, to describe him as reluctant to forgive the imperfections of imperfect creatures, unless *full satisfaction* be made for them on the score of their being capable of *uninterrupted obedience*. It is time to consider this point more closely and with more boldness than are usual, and to explode a doctrine of which certain preachers are making a very indiscreet use. *Satisfaction* is no scripture-term; and the idea which it is intended to convey is in a moral view an utter impossibility. Viewing the death of Christ through this medium, Mr. P. has rather perplexed than enlightened the subject.

We expected something of importance on the question relative to the origin of Sacrifices: but the writer does not appear to have satisfied his own mind; he very properly objects, however, to Bishop W.'s comment on the offering up of Isaac.

The view of Justification in the D. L. is fair ground for objection; and Mr. P., by endeavouring to unite Faith and Works, has given a better picture of Christianity than Dr. Warburton.

In the section on Miracles, the sentiment of the Bishop on Demonology

monology is too hastily adopted; and Mr. Pearson makes a remark which would have better suited the 15th century than the present. 'How far the spirits of darkness (says he) are still permitted to afflict human creatures, either in their moral or physical nature, and whether they still retain any power of inducing bodily distempers, or exciting other natural evils, we are not able to determine.' What an air of wisdom does this profound ignorance assume?

Mr. P. does not altogether agree with Dr. Warburton on the subject of Prophecy; and he with reason objects to the Prelate's comment on 2 Pet. i. 19.

As a prize-essay, this tract may at present be favourably contemplated by the writer: but we venture to prophecy that nine years hence he will not think more highly of it than we do; who are perhaps nine years older than he is. Mo.y.

Art. 25. *Two Discourses on the Origin of Evil,* founded on the History of Cain and Abel, and on the Reply of Jesus Christ relative to the Man born blind. By T. Drummond. 8vo. pp. 37. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1809.

That nothing sinful exists in the constitution of human nature; that all the evils of which we complain in the dealings of mankind with each other are the offspring of unsubdued passions; that Abel, though descended from the same parents with Cain, was pure and holy; and that, as our Lord, in reply to the question relative to the man who was born blind, did not refer to the offence of our first parents as the source of human afflictions, so therefore corruption of nature cannot be obtained by inheritance; are the positions maintained in these sermons. The preacher, however, is rather diffuse and declamatory; and though he combats the doctrine of Original Sin on the true ground, he has embarrassed his reasoning by a loose and rambling style. Had he compressed his argument, it would have had more effect; and the matter of these two discourses might well have been contained in a single sermon. Do

Art. 26. *Two Sermons,* preached on the 1st Day of January, 1809. at Hanover-street Chapel; and on the 8th of the same Month, at Worship street Chapel. By Joseph Nightingale, Author of a "Portraiture of Methodism," &c. &c. Published by Request*. 8vo. pp 47. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Mr. N. has here presented us with two interesting and impressive discourses, on *the Effects of Time on the Condition of Man,* and *on Grateful Recollections of Divine Mercy and Goodness.* In the first, he has affectingly glanced at the changes which have occurred and are occurring in the political world, as well as in the private and domestic relations of life; and in the latter he draws a picture of our blessings as inhabitants of this highly favoured country, and as living under the British Constitution. The accuracy of his representation must be strongly felt at the present moment, when the nations of the Continent have lost their independence, and experience all the ravages and unspeakable

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* Our collector remarked, with a smile, that he had often heard of this Publisher, Mr. Request, but could never find where he resided.

horrors

horrors of war. Throughout these sermons, he shews a mind at once serious and enlightened; and which, without bigotry and narrowness, is nobly alive to the interests of that Christianity, the essence of which is love to God and love to man. Mo-y.

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *An impartial Examination of Sir Francis Burdett's Plan of Parliamentary Reform.* 8vo. 2s. Bone and Horne. 1809.

The Baronet's plan was to make property the basis of political right; to allow house-holders, and others who were subject to direct taxation in support of the poor, the church, and the state, as well as forty-shilling-freeholders, to have a vote in returning members to parliament; to have the elections taken in the several parishes; and to restrict the duration of parliament to three years. — Respecting this plan, the author of the present Examination suggests two distinct questions; viz. 'Are the regulations which, at a more convenient opportunity, Sir Francis means to propose, calculated to obtain the end in view? and would this end, if attained, benefit the country?'—Both these interrogatories are decided in the affirmative. It is contended that, by this extension of the elective franchise, the people would regain their due influence in the state; that public spirit would increase; that merit would have fair play; and that the public burdens would be diminished. That such acquisitions would be blessings, it is needless to prove: but at present we see little prospect of realizing these splendid visions, howmuchsoever they may be demanded by the perilous circumstances of the country. The connection which subsists between a general feeling of public spirit and patriotic energy, between fair representation and moderate taxation, is here illustrated; and it is contended that, if the people enjoyed their full rights, the force of the country would be so greatly multiplied that the King might make peace with safety. If this be true, Bonaparte is the only man in Europe who ought to oppose our Parliamentary Reform. Do

Art. 28. *Letters on the Affairs of Spain, and Spanish America*; with Observations on the Revolution of the Continent. By Sydney. 8vo. 2s. C. and R. Baldwin. 1809

With no bright anticipations of the result of what is called the cause of the Spanish Patriots, this writer is solicitous to direct the views of our Government to the emancipation of Spanish America; and thus to form an Independent Empire, which would at once operate as a check on the United States, and open to us a market of an incalculable extent. According to him, all our exertions for Old Spain will be worse than thrown away. Our interference is pronounced to be wild and improvident; and the independence of the peninsula is considered to be impracticable in the present state of Europe. He would persuade us that, in a few months, Spain must be added to the list of revolutionized states under the influence of France; and the Spaniards are described as languid in their own cause, and incapable of the efforts of enlightened patriotism: but, when he attempts to explain the reasons which may induce the

Spaniards to wish to be revolutionized by Bonaparte, he assigns to them wishes and sentiments which exist only among an enlightened people. We are not sure, however, that the views of *Sydney* respecting the New World have not more sound policy in them, than those which this country has adopted in favour of Old Spain; and that the emancipation of Spanish America is not of more importance, than the preservation of the Mother Country from the grasp of Bonaparte.

Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 29. *Narrative of the Siege of Zaragoza.* By Charles Richard Vaughan, M.B. Fellow of All-Souls College, Oxford, and one of Dr. Radcliff's Travelling Fellows from that University. The sixth Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

Though the modern Zaragoza has not displayed that unconquerable spirit which has rendered antient Numantia so celebrated in the page of history, the heroism and steady perseverance of the inhabitants of the capital of Arragon, in defending themselves against the French, are highly creditable to their military reputation. It is therefore a source of extreme lamentation to reflect, when we are perusing these interesting pages, that, after the instances of personal valour and patriotic enthusiasm in both sexes, which they record, this city should fall into the hands of the enemy, and that its smoaking ruins should be quoted by them with exultation and triumph.

The population of Zaragoza is stated to have been about 60,000 when the siege commenced: but Mr. V. does not inform us of the multitude who perished during its continuance; nor does he extend his narrative to the melancholy catastrophe of its fall. From this evidence alone we should have been led to conclude that the inhabitants of Zaragoza were successful in repelling their invaders. Alas! poor city!

Do

Art. 30. *Arndt's Spirit of the Times.* Translated from the German by the Rev. P. W, being the Work for the Publication of which the unfortunate Palm of Erlangen was sacrificed by Napoleon, the Destroyer; containing Historical and Political Sketches, with Prognostics, relative to Spain and Portugal, Sweden, Russia, Turkey, Austria, France, and Bonaparte. 8vo. pp. 116. Thiselton. 1808.

M. Arndt's work on the *Spirit of the Times* was noticed in the Appendix to our 52d volume. The translator has given only selected passages from it; justly considering a great part of the original as too partial and local in its interest to deserve the labour of a version, which was rendered difficult by an intricate style, and by what he chuses to call the unintelligible *jargon* of the critical philosophy. We cannot doubt that the British public will thank him for having conveyed to them the sentiments of an intelligent, and, as far as we can conclude, sincere foreigner, on subjects with which he had possessed opportunities of becoming intimately acquainted: but we are convinced, that the Reverend gentleman was misinformed as to M. Arndt's work having occasioned the death of the bookseller Palm; and we much regret that he should have considered it as

proper,

proper, or as a method of recommending the pamphlet to English readers, to alter the simple title of the original, and to be anxious not only to preserve, but to increase, the strength of the epithets bestowed by the author on the head of the French nation. We also wish that he had included in this selection M Arndt's view of Great Britain. It is worth our attention to hear what a man of experience and knowlege, whose sentiments concerning our enemy coincide so fully with our own, thinks of our situation and our actions; and we may feel inclined to attach some value to the judgment of our fellow champion, though we are too proud to listen to our antagonist.

We cannot omit on this occasion to advert to M. Arndt's opinion respecting the means by which, he thinks, Bonaparte may and will yet be conquered; because the same ideas seem to be not uncommon in this country, and to be approved by some who have considerable influence in our national councils. 'Napoleon,' he says, 'will be conquered as soon as he shall be assailed with his own weapons.' These weapons are a violation of all faith, disregard of bloodshed and human misery, &c. Independently of the horror which must be excited in every feeling mind, by the idea of such a contest between the worst principles of human action, it must evidently be attended with the utmost danger, when the horrid weapons are not wielded by very powerful and skilful hands. The case of nations will ever resemble that of individuals. Even weakness finds a strong shield in truth and justice: but the ruin of the feeble will be unavoidable, and they will fall unpitied, detested, and be made accountable for all the miseries which both they and their more powerful adversaries have occasioned, when they attempt to enter the lists in conjunction with injustice and cruelty. Even prudence, therefore, advises a most careful estimation of the powers which are to take up against Bonaparte his own weapons; and we fear that they have on some occasions been employed against him without sufficient consideration. When we reflect how apt human beings are to over-rate their abilities, and how little even the rulers of states are exempt from this weakness of our nature, we cannot help being anxious that at least Great Britain should not be made, in future, to sacrifice the prospects of certain advantages from an honest policy, to the vain expectations of greater or more speedy success in the adoption of the system, which, under the direction of our powerful enemy, has so greatly contributed to extend his sway. **Sch.**

Art. 31. *Ecclesiastical Topography.* A Collection of one Hundred Views of Churches in the Environs of London. From Drawings expressly taken for this Work; accompanied with Descriptions from the best Sources, both MS. and printed. Vol. I. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Large Paper 4l. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies, &c.

In consequence of their public use, their antiquity, and the peculiarity of their architecture, Ecclesiastical Buildings are generally viewed with considerable interest: to accommodate, therefore, and gratify such persons as have not leisure and opportunities for visiting the Churches in the vicinity of the Metropolis, this work presents them with

with perspective views; and for their farther information, it also contains short topographical, antiquarian, and descriptive accounts of the structures, of the more curious monumental inscriptions, and the names of the Patrons and Incumbents. In order to shew the manner in which this latter department is executed, we shall extract an Account of the Church of Carshalton, in the county of Surrey; premising, however, that several of the other descriptions are larger and somewhat more particular:

'CARSHALTON.

'The Church of Carshalton, placed about the middle of the village, upon a rising ground, consists of a chancel, nave, and two ailes, with a square tower of stone nearly in the centre. It is dedicated to All Saints.

'The greater part of the structure seems to have been erected toward the latter end of the reign of Richard the Second. Vincent's visitation of Surrey, 1623, mentions several coats which were formerly in a window of the north aile, belonging to the families of Burley, Sarnesfield, and the Earl of Somerset, which are only mentioned here to corroborate the opinion[1]. The pillars of the nave, however, may fairly be referred to a remoter period: and are perhaps the remains of the church which is mentioned in the conqueror's survey [2].

'Vincent [3] and Aubrey [4] have preserved several inscriptions which are now either lost or mutilated. The only curious one that remains is for Nicholas Gaynesford and his family, toward the latter part of the fifteenth century; the figures above which have been gilt and enamelled. It is placed against the north wall of the chancel.

'Mr. Lyson says, "In the registry at Winchester is a commission dated 1324, for reconciling the church of Carshalton, which had been polluted by the death of Thomas Gruton [5]."

'The benefice, which was anciently a Rectory, appears to have been given to Merton Abbey in the reign of Henry the Second by Pharamos of Bolognia [6]; and became appropriated before the 29th of Edward the first, 1301, when it was presented to as a vicarage [7]. It is in the deanery of Ewel, and diocese of Winchester.

'At the dissolution of monasteries, it was granted by Edward the Sixth to William Goringa. It afterwards came to the Fromonds: and from them by inheritance to the Baynes: one of whom at the beginning of the last century restored the great tithes, and re-endowed the church as a rectory [8].

'Rectors since 1700.—1703. William Hollin —1779. William Rose.

'[1] Compare Lysons's Environs of Lond. Vol. i. p. 127.
'[2] "AULTONE, Ibi Eccla" Domesd.
'[3] Visit. among the Harleian Manuscripts in the Museum.
'[4] Hist. of Surrey, Vol. ii. p. 175-178.
'[5] Environs of London. Vol. i. p. 126.
'[6] See Mon. Ang. Vol. ii. p. 135.
'[7] Manning's History of Surrey. Vol. i. Introd. p. xiv.
'[8] Lyson's Env. of Lond. Vol. i. p. 135.

'In

'In Pope Nicholas' Taxation[1], the rectory called Ecclesia de Kerssauton, stands 21 marks, the vicarage at 4l. 3s. 4d.'

The general idea of this work is good; and were views engraved of all the churches in the kingdom according to their respective counties, such a publication, although voluminous, would probably meet with patronage. With respect to the execution of this volume, however, we do not feel warranted to speak in terms of great commendation. Indeed, we think that neither the engravings are in a style of sufficient elegance, nor the accounts sufficiently particular, to accord with the importance which the work seems to assume. Had it been printed on a smaller scale, considerable expence would have been saved, and its objects equally attained. Our general opinion, therefore, is that it has not merit enough to aspire to the character of elegance; and as a book of information or reference, which should be the primary objects of such publications, it is unnecessarily expensive.—The design will be completed in two volumes, each containing fifty views.

W. Re-s.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 32. Preached before the Grateful Society, in All-Saints' Church, Bristol, November 14, 1808, being the Anniversary of the Nativity of the late Edward Colston, Esq. By the Rev. William Shaw, D. D. Rector of Chelvey, Somerset. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

Dr. Shaw thinks with correctness, and expresses himself with liberality: but some readers will call his orthodoxy in question, when he asserts that 'Charity, for any thing we know to the contrary, may be accepted without faith.' The opinion of such critics, however, the preacher, if we read him rightly, will hold as *cheap as dirt*; and he certainly has well pleaded the cause of charity. The whole amount of Edward Colston's benefactions is stated at 76,325l.! and the Grateful (why not *well-disposed*) Society is urged to imitate his patriotic example—Dr. Shaw's prayer before the sermon is an equal indication of his expanded mind.

Mo-y.

Art. 33. *Apostolical Directions concerning Female Education*; preached at St. Thomas's Square, Hackney, January 8, 1809, to recommend a School of Industry founded in that Place. By S. Palmer. 12mo. 6d. Conder, &c.

With oratory which is evidently the result of good sense and good feeling, this preacher advocates the cause of that species of charity which is directed to the education of such poor females as are designed for the station of servitude. Mr. P. speaks from experience, in urging the plan which he here recommends; and his observations must reach the mind and heart of every good Christian.

Do

'[1] MS. in the King's Rememb. Office, Exch. fol. 208.'

CORRES-

CORRESPONDENCE.

W. M., who seems so partial to very long articles, that he even argues against the continuance of the *Catalogue* department of our Review, will perhaps be surprized at hearing us declare that we attach to it great importance. Without such a classification, a very slight view could be taken of the Literature of the age; and at least ninety out of a hundred of the numerous books which issue from the press must be consigned to total oblivion. By the mode, therefore, which we adopt in the Catalogue part of our Review, we bring many publications forwards, which would otherwise find no critic: and though our notices are necessarily short, they are preferable to total silence. By this process, about 500 authors annually appear at our tribunal; whereas on the plan recommended by W. M. we should not be able to review more than 50 or 60. In the early part of our labours, we had no apprehension of being in arrears with the public: but, now, books and pamphlets are produced with such rapidity, that even with the contrivance of a catalogue we cannot make our vehicle large enough for those who apply for places.

Mo-y.

Habeo desires to have a review of his publication speedily inserted. He happens, *for which it is impossible to account*, to think better of his work than we can do; and when he sees the article now in our drawer which refers to it, we suspect that he will be angry with himself for being so impatient.

Dº

Y. Y. inquires after a volume of Sermons. He has touched on a sore subject. What an unnoticed pile presents itself to our view!" O that this pile were a "false creation," and that we could wake and find it but a dream!

Dº

TO THE READER.

*** It has been determined to reprint all the Numbers of the MONTHLY REVIEW which have so long been *desiderata*; and as soon, therefore, as so large a quantity of matter can pass through the press, we shall be able to furnish our friends with such parts of the M. R. as they may want, to perfect their setts. — A few complete copies of the whole work, also, with the *General Indexes*, will be thrown into the hands of the booksellers, for casual sale; and an opportunity, *which can never again occur*, will thus be presented to the public, of obtaining setts, bound in every variety of manner, and made up uniformly at once from sheets.

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☞ The Appendix to Vol. LIX. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains various articles of interesting and important new FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS; with the *General Title*, *Index*, &c. for the Volume.

Errors. pp. 5, 13, 41, 60, 71, 95, 101, 104.